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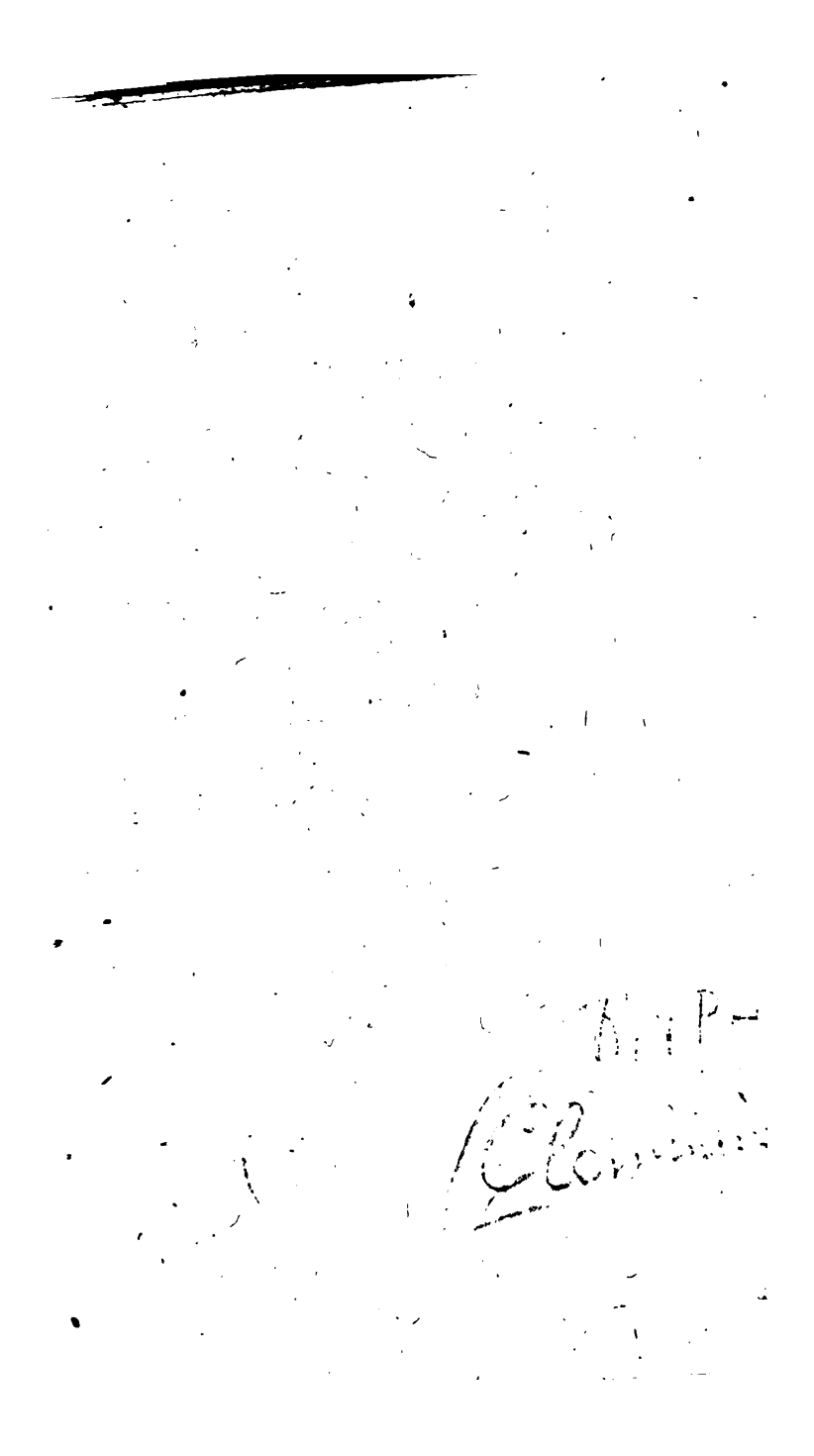

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1.

Account of the Mines of Spain by Mr Hoppensack.

Mr Hoppensack, superintendant of the Spanish *mines*, published in 1796 two memoirs on this subject, written in the german language, which contain some interesting matter.

It is well known, that the Romans used to procure a considerable quantity of gold from Spain and they also obtained iron, silver and copper. Mr H. found in an ancient mine a piece of impure copper, containing more than a tenth part of its weight of silver, vitreous silver ore with native silver, and ponderous spar with red silver ore. In the times of Goths and Saarcens these mines were neglected, so that only small quantities of lead and copper were obtained from them;

and they are still neglected, the quicksilver mines alone occupying the public attention. The famous Counts Fugger in 1551. obtained the privilege of working the silver mine at Guadaleaval, anciently occupied by the Carthaginians. They found it very rich, so that it had for some years yielded to the king annually twenty four millions Reals as his fifth. They continued it for thirty years, which was the period of their grant, and afterwards it fell into the hands of a French company. In 1775 Mr H. had the superintendance of it; but the works were in a ruinous state, and but little ore was left. He proposed to abandon the old works, and sink new ones; but this was deemed too hazardous, and in 1779 the company was broken up.

The mountains of Guadaleaval are composed of argillaceous schist with mica. The veins in which the metal is found are commonly ponderous spar, quartz and micaceous sand.

There is found at Terruel, in a gangue of quartz and white feldspar; grey copper ore, cupreous pyrites, grey silver ore (fahlers), oxyd of copper in crystals; sulphuret of antimony and cin-

cinnabar; and on account of this last, the Spanish government take the working of it into their own hands.

The only tin mines that are worked are in Gallicia. The ore is in crystals runing through a bed of granite. One of these crystals was found, which weighed twenty five pounds.

The lead mines have been worked with great diligence ever since the expulsion of the Moors. The potters procure from them compact galena, called by them alcohol. The lead ore of Linares, which is the richest, lies in a bed of granite.

The exploitation of iron mines is chiefly carried on in the province of Biscaya.

Antimony is found in Castile and Gallicia.

Fifty years ago a rich vein of Cobalt was found in the valley of Gistain, in the Pyrennees and yielded a large quantity of metal, which was sent into Swabia.

In 1780, the author of this memoirs worked a vein of steel-grained cobalt ore, and in a short time collected upwards of 300 Quintals. A manu-

facture of smalt was in consequence established at Banneras de Lucho, which was soon given up.

At Serveto in the-same neighbourhood, there is a brine-spring and a pit of rock-salt.

Independently of the Pyrennees, there are four distinct chains of mountains in the kingdom of Spain, namely, the *Santillanas*, which arrise in Gallicia and stretch across the province of Leon as far as Castile and Navarre; *the Urbians*, which, running successively along Estremadura, Leon, and New and Old Castile, terminate in Arragon; the *Sierra Morena chain*, which takes its rise in Portugall, and stretches between Extremadura and Andalusia; and lastly, the Granada ridge Of all these, the Sierra Morena mointains are by far the richest in minerals. On their southern side there are entire hills of a fine pudding stone, mixed with a red marl.

A person of the name Ferretti took up an ancient copper-mine, formerly worked by the Romans, near the town of Molina, in the kingdom of Arragon. The gangue was a compact limestone. He one day broke into large vaults which might once have been the residence of the slaves

slaves, employed in the works. The roof was entirely lined with malachite and crystals of azure. Twenty quintals were collected on the spot, and were principally sold in pieces.

Below Azuago, there are coal mines, which supply the furnaces at Almaden.

There is a spring near Aranjuez, which contains Glauber's salt; and in the Dutchy of Minazelli the mountain is almost entirely composed of rock salt.

Most of the provinces of Spain contain beds of coal, but they are no where worked except in Catalonia.

The Granada mountains abound with beautiful masses of native sulphur. All the heights in the neighbourhood of Cadiz are full of swine-stone, mixed with native sulphur; but it is not permitted to build upon them, as all the sulphur, salt, and lead are sold on the kings account.

At Alcanis, in Arragone there are manufactories of alum and sulphate of iron

In the bishopric of *Oviedo* there is a great quantity of a agate wrought into buttons.

Calamine is extracted near *Alcarda*.

At villa *Deprado* the ancient galleries are still pursued, and they yield ferruginous garnets and emery.

On the whole, we may look upon Spain to be a country abundantly favoured by nature with mineral riches, but they have been hitherto much neglected.

The annual product is as follows:

16000	Quintals	of mercury
250	—	of copper
3100	—	of lead
175,000	—	of iron
25,000	—	of vitriol (sulphate of iron)
14,000	—	of alum
750	—	of sulphur.

Mines of gold and silver yet remain to be worked; many veins are found in Extremadura, and among the mountains of Sierra Morena.

The second part of this memoir treats of the quicksilver-mines of Almaden. It is proved from the testimony of Pliny, that they have been worked for upwards of 2287 years, and furnished the

the vermillion, that was sent to Rome in form of powder. The country around the town of Almaden principally consists of a grey argillaceous schist, mixed with white calcareous particles, and with black bituminous schist. There are seven principal veins, which cross this argillaceous schist; their breadth is from two or three toises and they are composed of quartz, rich in cinnabar. These veins sometimes approach and cross each other, sometimes they are cut by a stip of the above mentioned bituminous schist. They dip to a very considerable depth, and as yet they have only been followed as low as 100 lachts. (fathoms)

At some leagues distance from Almaden there are three other establishments for the extraction of mercury from the ore; they are at *Almadenejos*, *Guadalperal*, and *Las Cuebas* these are dependencies on Almaden and agree with the latter in all the principal operations.

Since the year 1524, there has been procured from this mine about fifteen hundred thousand quintals of mercury; the clear annual produce is sometimes as high as twenty thousand quintals, exclusive of about sixty quintals, which

are sent every to Seville, either in the form of vermillion or in sealing-wax and which contains about 0. 70 of mercury. These works employ about a thousand workmen.

2.

On the statistical and commercial importance of Surinam.

In the north-east part of South-America, on the coast of Guyana, a country extending about twelve hundred geographical miles in length, and upwards of 680 in breadth, arose about 150 years ago the colony of Surinam, situated on the banks of a large river of that name. It was founded, in the year 1634, by a number of Englishmen, which nation, after some years enterval — during which the French had made their appearance, put the inhabitants to the sword, and disappeared — in the year 1650, turned again its thoughts to these deserted parts of the new hemisphere, and settled there once more, under the guidance and direction of Lord Willoughby.

The

The exertions of the first colonists were crowned with so much success, that at the expiration of a term of seventeen years, they possessed already fifty fine sugar plantations, and several other useful establishments, when, in the year 1667, the Dutch surprized and rendered themselves masters of the colony, which, notwithstanding its speedy recapture by the English, was ceded to them by the treaty of peace, concluded soon after at Breda. Since that period, the colony of Surinam continued in possession of the Dutch, until, after an interval of 132 years, it submitted, on the 20th of August 1799 to the sceptre of George III. and thus returned under the dominion of its first founders and possessors.

Of all the settlements of Europeans under the torrid zone of Guyana, Surinam is by far the most important in point of extent, as well as from its superior cultivation, trade and wealth. Two rivers, the Sumason and Masone, form the natural boundaries of the possessions of the French and Spaniards, and of the formerly Dutch, now (1799) British, Guyana, which extends from the latter river to the mouth of the Oronoko, and along the coast, thirty miles beyond the point, where

mixture of blood, water and earth, was the nauseous potion, which was drank by the negociators of peace, as a pledge of their mutual good faith, and in confirmation of the treaty concluded. Far greater security than this treaty can afford the planters of Surinam, they derive at present from the vast military power of the British government, which has taken them under its protection.

But it is not only in point of security that this colony derives immense advantages from its late submission to Great Britain, but also with regard to its internal prosperity, trade, wealth and foreign relations. The soil of Surinam produces not only sugar, coffee, tobacco, cottenwool, and indigo, of a superior quality, but also gums, dyers wood, and all other productions of hot climates, which are cultivated in the plantations, seated on the banks of Surinam, Commarine, Cothica. Perion and other rivers. The number of plantations, which in the year 1775 did not exceed 430, has now risen to 500, and each of them contains a district of 8to 900 acres. By an authentic account, the products of Surinam in the year 1785 was as follows:

24,320,000 lbs	raw sugar, which was sold in Holland for	Guilders	694,450
15,387,000 lbs	coffee sold for	=	715,078
970,000 lbs	Cottonwool, sold for	=	197,688
790,854 lbs	cocoa, sold for	=	51,364
152,844 lbs	dyer's wood sold for	=	1232
	These commodities fetched therfore in the whole		1,659,812

and their importation into the ports of the Batavian Republic gave employment to 70 vessels. In addition to these commodities, Surinam produced 560,000 Gallons of syrup, and 166,000 Gallons of Rum, which were not exported for Europe, but sent with other goods to America. The produce of the Colony has been of late years considerably increased by a successful cultivation of tobacco; but the results of this branch of the colonial culture are not yet known from authentic account.

The industry of the planters of Surinam, in point of commerce, is, like that of all other American colonies, confined to the trade with their own

of springs. The inhabitants preserve the rainwater in cisterns; but are nevertheless obliged to procure water from St Christopher, for which they often pay twelve livres per Ton.

The only port in the island is *le Carenage*, near which stands Gustavia, the sole town in the colony. This port is situated on the western side and has excellent moorings. Vessels, indeed, that draw more than nine feet, cannot enter it, but it will contain a hundred vessels, an advantage, that is not to be found, either at St Eustatia, or St Christopher. The bay of *Colombier* is deep enough for large ships; but it has no town on its banks. Le Carenage had no town belonging to it, before the island was in possession of Sweden.

The climate is in general healthy; but at certain times of the year, the weather is variable. During nine months it is very pleasing; for though the sun is burning, there is generally a breeze, that cools and purifies the air, and is extremely refreshing. If it were not for this almost constant breeze, the climate would be unhealthy. Hurricanes prevail from the middle of July till the middle of October, during which time the wind changes

ges so rapidly, as to visit every point of the compass within ten or twelve minutes.

The population of the island is much increased, since it belonged to Sweden. At Gustavia are to be found Swedes, English, French, Danes, Americans and Jews. With the exception of a very few the planters are French. The food of the negroes here is so scanty as, in many cases, to be insufficient for nourishment, and their cloathing is wretched; indeed it can scarcely be called such, leaving the body exposed to all the evils, it can encounter from nakedness, and among the rest, to the juice of the *manceuiller*, which corrodes and burns the flesh, like *aqua fortis*.

The stature of the inhabitants varies according to the different nations, from which they are sprung. The natives of the country are strong and robust, but more especially the men. The women are comparatively slight and feeble, which is the effect of the indolent lives they lead. They are never employed in any kind of labour, and remain in setting posture during the greater part of the day. If any thing happens to fall from their hand, they call a slave, to take it up and

slaves are constantly employed to keep of the flies and insects, that would incommode them. The natives are very little subject to illness and generally live to an old age.

Fresh provisions, flour, dried fish and salted meat are brought from the continent of America to this island, and the sea furnishes it with fish of various kinds. They have wheaten bread here, besides a kind of bread, peculiar to the country.

The houses are made of wood, and there are but a few, that have the lower part of stone. Some of them are raised upon four stone pillars, so that the wind can pass underneath. The windows are simply openings in the wall, with window-shutters, or lattices.

St Bartholomew, as well as the neighbouring islands, is a magazine for American and European merchandize. Vessels arrive daily to deliver their cargoes, and take in others. The plantations, that abound the most there, are those of cotton, which succeed very well. The practice of the planters is, to sow four or five grains of the seed in a hole, and when the plants appear, they pluck all up but the strongest. After the first crop they

cut

cut down the branches, and the plant pushes out new shoots, which bear like the original stem; but after the second crop, the seeds must be again sown; aloes are planted round the plantations for fences; they are placed in a straight line as close together, as possible. When these fences have arrived at maturity, they are impenetrable, either by men or animals. The aloe grows to a great height, and spreads very much, the leaves being very often from four to five feet in length. When the aloe has blossomed and born fruits, it dies, but the planters take care to prevent any void in the fence.

Law suits in general, are determined according to the Swedish code. There are cases however, in which the custom of India is followed. As to the punishments inflicted on slaves, almost every properietor has a different method. The slaves, scarcely receiving nourishment to keep them alive, overburthened with labour, and daily receiving strokes of the whip, frequently desert, in which case the proprietor has a right to inflict discretionary punishment on the slave, he recovers. On ordinary occasions, the culprit is laid upon his face on the ground, stripped quite naked, with

his hands tied to the wheels of a cannon, and his feet extended and bound at two posts. He who inflicts the punishment is armed with a whip from twelve to fourteen feet in length, but with a very short handle. He places himself at some distance, and, at every stroke, produces a noise like the report of a pistol; and long stripes of skin and frequently of the flesh itself, are torn of by the whip. The punishment extends to thirty, fifty and some-times a hundred lashes. The negroes excel in dances, which consist in a variety of figures and movements of the body, that it is difficult, and almost impossible, for Europeans to imitate, even Creoles attain them with great difficulty, while the negroes easily learn European dances. On the last sunday of every month, battles are fought with Cocks, which occasion considerable betting.

The coins used in this island are the moidore and piastre; they have also a fictitious money, called the pisovett, which is worth something more than two thirds of a piastre and a small silver coin called a dogg, and a coin called a bett of the value of six doggs. The piastres are the most in use. The inhabitants frequently cut them into

two

two or four parts. When they are divided into four pieces, two of them are always larger than the others; the larger are of the value of three betts and the smaller of two betts and a half.

The author finishes his account with a very long and circumstantial catalogue of the natural productions of the island, which are much more numerous, than would be imagined.

4.

Geographical Account of Algiers.

That part of the northern coast of Africa, which is known by the general name of Barbary, contains four principal divisions. Of the four states of the Barbary Coast, Algiers is by far the most considerable, with respect to extent of territory. According to Shaw, the country subject to Algiers is separated by the Trara mountains from the dominions of Marocco. According to Hoest the river *Mullooïha*, or *Malva* divides the two kingdoms. If, with Shaw, we make to the west the Trara mountains, and to the east the river

Zaine, formerly *Tusca*, the boundaries of the Algerian state, it extends from 6′ of west, to 9° 15′ of east longitude, from the meridian of Greenwich. With regard to its latitude, the extremities lie between 32° and 37°. The city of Algiers, which is situated nearly in the centre, has, according to the most accurate astronomical observations a polar altitude of 36° 49′ 30″. If we take the medium difference of latitude of the whole kingdom to be 2° 30′ and the difference of longitude to be 9° 30′ the superficial extent would amount to about, 4,218, or according to a more accurate astronomical calculation by M. von Zach 4262 geographical square miles.

On the population of the state of Algiers nothing can be determined with certainity; however it seems incomparably less than in every other state of the same extent, for arts, science and industry flourish not in this barbarous land Even in the vicinity of the cities, we find extensive tracts uninhabited and uncultivated and such wastes increase in proportion as we recede to a greater distance from the towns. In the interiou of the country, commence the dreary desart The iron hand of despotism, the want of com

merci

mercial inter course in the inland provinces, and the frequent ravages of the plague, contribute likewise to diminish the number of the inhabitants.

In general as far as the Desert (*Sahra*) the soil is fruitful, but more especially on the sea-coast, and in the valleys. Forrests, properly so called, seldom occur. The district about Bugia is the most woody, and produces the greatest quantity of timber. Tracts, on the other hand; full of thickets and brushwood are less rare. The country may be reckoned among the mountaineous; many of the chains of mountains contain minerals, the principal of which are lead and copper. Mineralsprings and waters are met with in many places; but the necessary accommodations are wanting for those, who might wish to use them. The nearer we approach the Desert, the more the fecundity of the soil decreases; there are, however, on the borders of it, districts, where agriculture is followed with advantage. In the Desert itself, only particular spots, here and there, are sown with corn; the chief products are figs and dates. Here live a number of nomadical tribes and families, who, proud of their independence, endure with fortitude, the want of pos-

 session

sessions and of the conveniences of a more civilized state of society. They are, however, addicted to plunder, suspicious, and frequently treacherous and cruel. On the coast and in the northern part of the country, springs and rivers abound. Of the latter, the Shellif is the most considerable; it takes its rise in the Sahra, passes through the lake Titeri, and empties itself in a western direction into the Mediterranean Sea.

The kingdom of Algiers comprehends a part of the ancient *Mauritania*, and in particular *Mauritania Caesariensis* and the ancient Numidia. At present it contains four principal divisions: 1, the western province or *Mascara*; 2, the territory of the city of *Algiers*; 3, the middle or southern Province, *Titeri*; 4, the eastern Province or *Constantine*.

I. Mascara.

The *Malva* or *Mallooiha*, which, as we remarked above, is the boundary of the dominions of Algiers on this side, takes its rise in the Sahra, and runs, with small windings from south to north. This river might, to the great advantage of commerce, be rendered navigable to a consider-

able

able extent, but, in the present situation of affairs in Algiers; it cannot be expected, that such beneficial undertakings should beeven thought of. Thirteen miles from the mouth of the Malva, on the coast, are three unhabited islands, between which small coasting vessels may lie in safety. To the east, on the coast, are situated *Seedi Abdelmoumen* and *Maiscarda*, two inconsiderable places, the latter of which is celebrated for containing the sepulchre of a Mahomedan saint of the-same name. A little to the south-west lie two castles, formerly garrisoned by troops of the emperour of Morocco *Fort el Wed* and *el Joube;* to the east, in a pleasant district, is situated *Woojeda.* The southern parts of the province are inhabited by inhabited by independent wandering tribes, es pecially by the tribe *Angad.*

From the Trara Mountains, along the coasts, towards the east, we meet with the following places: Twant; Cape Hone, formerly *Promontorium Magnum;* Tackumbreit, at the mouth of the Tafna; at a small distance from it lies the island of Acra. All these are inconsiderable places. Farther towards the north, the *Salt-River*, after

II. The Territory of the City of Algiers.

The capital *Algiers* or *Argel*, has, from its amphitheatrical situation, the resplendent whiteness of houses, and the numerous circumjacent villas, a most agreeable and inviting appearance; but the internal state of the city answers not the expectation thus raised. It has five gates, but no public places or squares of considerable extent. The larger moschs amount to seven, but there is nothing remarkable or of superior beauty in their architecture. Even the Dey's palace is far from being spacious and extensive. Algiers coutains about 80,000 inhabitants in which number are included several thousand Iewish families. Shaw makes the number of the inhabitants amount to 117,000 and Laugier de Tassy to 100,000. In the time of these two writers, the numbers respectively given by them, may have been the true amount of the population, for it has been remarked, that it yearly decreases, and indeed it is far from improbable, that fifty years hence, if no extraordinary revolution intervene, and the government remain the same, the inhabitants may not exceed fifty or sixty thousand.

About half a mile to the north east of the city commences the plain of *Metishe*, which stretches fifty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, as far as the branch of Mount Atlas at the foot of which lies the town of *Belida*. This plain is well cultivated, better indeed than the other districts of the kingdom. Immediately under the government of Algiers are the following *Kaits:* the Kait of *Zabau* or *Sebau*, the principal of them all; the Kait of *Bufarik*, *Bninusa*, *Gashnà*, *Bnigliffa*, *Bnishat*, *Arrih*, *Zebt*, *Yser*, and *Sherscelle*. This province is watered by the *Mazaffran*, which at its entrance into the sea is a very considerable river and little inferior to the Sheliff, by the *Shiffa* and the *Harrash*.

III. The Province of Titeri.

This province is the smallest and least important; towards the north it is mountainous and narrow; to the south it extends far into the Desert. Along the coast of *Temendsuse*, to the mouth of the *Booberack* we find not a single town. On this coast the *Regya*, the *Budwowe*, the *Corsoe*, the *Merdass*, and the *Yisser* fall into the

the sea. Of these rivers the Yisser greatly surpasses the others in magnitude. In the interior of the country, at the foot of the ridge of mountains, and about fifteen miles from Algiers lies *Bleeda* or *Belida* a tolerably large and populous town, but without much trade. The second town of this province is *Medea;* it is surrounded with high mountains and the heat being, from this cause, extraordinarily great, fruits and plants attain a greater perfection. Medea is nearly of the same magnitude as Belida. The chain of mountains branching out in this district to the east and west, is a part of mount Atlas, and becomes higher, the farther it extends towards the east. The *Anwall* Mountains, on the river Yisser, already rise to a great height; but to the south east, we find some of the highest in the whole kingdom, known by the names of *Jurjura* and *Felizia.* The latter are a high and rocky ridge, that stretches to the extent of from seventeen to twenty miles and is in the most places inaccessible. There dwell the *Cabyls,* an independent tribe, who have never yet been subdued by the Algerines. During the greatest part of the year, the tops of many of these mountains are, even in this hot climate, covered with snow, which vanishes in May; and re-

appears

appears towards the end of September. In and near the city of Algiers, these snow-covered summits are are distinnctly seen, resting as it were, on the clouds.

IV.

The Province of Constantine in the largest and richest of the four, and stretches from the river *Booberack* to the *Zaine*, which separates it from Tunis. The greatest part along the coast is mountainous and in the mountains dwell free Arabian and Moorish tribes, which from time to time have proved formidable ennemies to the power of Algiers. The most remarkable places are *Bugia*, a large town, and well built after the manner of the country. It has a garrison of from two or three hundred men, which however is not always sufficient to overawe and put a stop to the depredations of the *Cabyls*. As these free mountaineers possess a superfluity of oil, soap, dried figs and especially timber, fit for building, the government of Algiers, which stands in need of these products, is obliged in many things to shew great indulgence to these tribes. The Cabyls especially those, who duell to the west of

Collo, are reckoned among the most turbulent and cruel inhabitants of the Algerine dominions. In *Collo*, the French African Company has a small factory, as likewise at *Bona* or *Blaid el Aneb*, (the ancient *Hippo Regius*), where they purchase corn, oil, leather, wax and wool, and constantly keep a resident agent, who has charge of the correspondence between Bona, Algiers, la Calle and Marseille. Half a mile from the present Bona, we find the ruins of Hippo. The chief factory of the French African Company on this coast is *la Calle*, surrounded on three sides by the sea, and on the fourth defended by a strong wall. This place is inhabited by three or four hundred Corsicans and Provencals. The edifices belonging to the company, are the only requalar buildings; the rest of the inhabitants, composed of the scum of the populace of Marseilles, live in wretched huts. They are employed in packing and unpacking of goods, in the coral-fishery, in taking care of the catte, and must likewise do military duty, and daily mount guard. At the mouth of the Zaine, near the shore, lies the island of *Tabarca*. It was formerly well cultivated, contained a great number of inhabitants and was connected with the continent by a mound. It consists

sists of a high, and towards the north steep rock, which height gradually decreases on the side towards the land. On this declivity formerly stood the populous and pleasantly situated city of the same name. The Emperor Charles V. conquered this island, and caused it to be fortified as a place of safety, from which the Tunisian corsairs might be successfully attacked, and if necessity should require it, a landing effected. At that time, many Spanish families settled here, and the island was defended by a Spanish garrison. In the sequel it was granted to the house of Doria, and thus came under the dominion of the Genoese, who established here a coral fishery. When their trade being infested and interrupted by the Algerine corsairs the inhabitants of *Tabarca* applied to Genoa for assistance, it was in agitation to transfer the possession of it to France. This project the Tabarcans rendered abortive, by voluntarily surrendering their City to Tunis. But they found themselves cruelly deceived. Instead of protecting their trade, they Bey of Tunis razed the fortifications of the island, treated all the inhabitants, on their expressin their discontent, as prisoners of war, and caused the great part of them to be carried as slaves to Tunis. In the

year 1757. when Tunis was taken by the Algerines, the captives Tabarcans were brought as slaves to Algiers, where the Spanish court soon after purchased their freedom, and they returned to Spain or Italy. The Bey of Tunis caused a new fort to be constructed on the continent, exactly opposite the island, but kept in both forts only a small garrison. Since the year 1784, the island has for the most part been uninhabited, having lost almost all its remaining inhabitants by the plague. The French African Company obtained from the Bey of Tunis the privilege to send hither an agent or factor, who, however, does not constantly reside on the spot.

Constantine, formerly Cirta, one of the most considerable cities of ancient Numidia, is the capital of the whole province, and the residence of the Bey. Its ruins still shew, what it once has been. Part of the city is built on a steep eminence, from which criminals are thrown town headlong. Next to Algiers Constantine is the most populous city in the Algerine dominions.

In the *Sahra*, behind mount *Atlas* or *Tell*, lies the district *Zaab*, belonging to the province of *Constantine*. The people of Zaab are free and

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pay no tribute. They are poor and indigent, as it may be expected of the inhabitants of so barren a soil. Dates are their principal article of food, for they have beautiful and extensive plantations of palm-trees. From the nature of the country, only a few can be employed in agriculture and pasturage. They carry on some commerce in negroes and ostrich feathers. Small troops of the poorest of them every year wander forth to the capital and the larger cities of the kingdom, where they are employed in services similar to those, performed by the Savoyards in Paris; and having in the course of two or three years accumulated a capital of from six to ten Zechins, return home, and are reckoned among the wealthy of the land. In the capital they are known by the name of *Biscaris*, and constitute, under a common head, a kind of distinct corporation; they have even a common treasury for the purpose of mutually relieving each other. They are the only class of free servants, and are highly esteemed for their fidelity. In winter as well summer, they sleep wrapped in rags, on a kind of benches before the shops; others place themselves at the gates of the different roads, and open them to the guards, and to other unsuspi-

cious persons. Experience has proved, that they are deserving of the confidence, reposed in them, for they are indefatigable and of a placid and obliging disposition. Those among them, who are guilty of any breach of trust are punished by their chiefs. They are likewise employed as servants in the houses of the Europeans, and are very useful to them, as, besides the language of the country, they speak the *lingua Franca*. Conformably to the custom of the ancient Carthaginians, all the inhabitants of Zaab are dog-eaters, and in general neither scrupulous nor squeamish with regard to their food. The villages which the Biscaris inhabit in their native country, are small, all similar to one another, and remarkable for dirtiness and poverty. The chief place of the district is the old decayed town of *Biscara*, from which this class of men probably derived their name.

On the Algerine coast neither ebb nor flood is perceptible, and there is a want of good and secure harbours and likewise of convenient landing places, for the shore is for the most part high, steep and rocky. *Oran* is, beyond doubt, the best harbour of the whole kingdom; the harbour

bour of *Arseo* is indeed equally convenient, deep and safe, but less capacious. The harbour of Algiers is small, shallow, insecure; and moreover, when a strong north-wind blows, the entrance into it is attended with the greatest danger, on account of the numerous rocks lying in its neighbourhood. The harbour of *Bugia* is safer, deeper, and more capacious than that of Algiers, but its entrance is equally dangerous, and it is not much frequented by Europeans. *Bona* and *la Calle* scarcely deserve the name of harbours; as, besides having all the defects of those already mentioned, they are capable of admitting only small vessels, such as draw five or at most six feet of water.

V.

Account of the *Inhabitants* of *Algiers*, and *Country subject* to the *Dey* and of their difference with respect to *Origin*, *Character*, and *civil Relations*.]

The inhabitants of the Algerine State are partly Turks, partly Moors, and partly Christians and Jews. Each of these four divisions contains different subdivisions.

The Turks have established themselves here since the middle of the sixteenth century, and have rendered themselves so formidable, that they may be considered as the lords of the country. They are the nobility: their privileges are founded on their personal valours; and in their hands are all the offices and employments; the other inhabitants being kept by them in a state of ignorance and subjection. All the Turks settled here, have, at different times arrived either as emigrants, or even fugitives, from the dominions of the Grand Seignoir. According to the established constitution of Algiers, no native of the country can be a Turk: he only is considered as a genuine Turk, and enjoys the prileges annexed to that class, who is descended from Mahomedan parents, or born of a Mahomedan mother, in the dominions of the Grand Seignor. Renegadoes, who come from Turkey to Algiers, are indeed in one respect esteemed Turks, but not so noble as the others, holding a rank as much inferior to the genuine Turks, as the new to the old nobility in Europe.

Formerly the number of Turks established at Algiers was from fourteen to sixteen thousand men;

men; but now they at most amount to nine or ten thousand, among whom there are many invalids. The vacancies occasioned by death or otherwise, are filled up by recruiting chiefly at Smirna and Alexandria, where young men are, by tempting and fallacious promises, enticed to leave their native land, and enter into the service of the Dey. The recruits, who here offer themselves are almost all of the lowest class of the populace, runaway artificers, shepherds, criminals escaped from the hands of justice, among whom there are not seldom murderers and villains of other the most atrocius crimes. Their first reception at Algiers answers not to their highwrought expectations; they receive a few coarse cloaths, free quarters in the barracks, daily two small leaves of bread and every other month 406 aspers. Twelve or even sixteen years may thus be passed, before a Turk is raised to the class of those, who are entitled to the highest pay. Such as have relations, or exercise a trade, subsist tolerable well; the others overrun the country in bands and live by plundering and robbing. These excesses are indeed sometimes punished by the government, but as the cause still continues to exist, they cannot be entirely sup-

pressed. No wonder, then, if the Turks are hated by the Moors: but their hatred shews itself in acts of vengeance only against such of them as singly stray too far into the country; for, on the whole, they are more feared than hated by the cowardly natives.

The Turks resident in Algiers are ignorant, proud in the highest degree, lazy voluptuous, revengeful, and jealous; but then they are at the same time faithful, sincere, courageous and tolerant. The meanest Turk esteems himself far superior to the Moors Christians and Iews. These ideas of superiority, which he brings with him from his native country, are nourished and confirmed by the privileges, he enjoys at Algiers. In repose and conveniency the inhabitant of the East places his chief happiness. Stretched in indolent ease on his carpet, the opulent Turk smokes with voluptuous relish his pipe, remains for hours in the same posture, drinks his Coffee, slumbers between whiles, when he has no company, takes sometimes by way of change a little opium; again smokes his pipe; orders his slaves to perfume him, and in particular his beard, with incense; and in such a round of enjoyments consumes the whole day.

day. Those, who are less favoured by fortune, enjoy as much as they can, and for this purpose hasten to the coffee-house, to smoke their pipes at ease, to view the passengers and enjoy the pleasant delirium arising from opium. Even the poor and indigent will live on a scanty portion of the coarsest food and wander about the streets dirty and covered with rags, rather than submit to work. Nothing is able to rouse the Turk from his inactivity; he seems merely to vegetate, and to prefer this torpid state of existence to every other.

This indolence is accompanied with an unbounded propensity to sensual pleasures. A moderate passion for the sexual intercourse is in this country a rare phenomenon. Not less excessive is the Algerine Turk in his jealousy; no punishment is so cruel, no deed so black, but the offended party will resolve upon to wreak his vengeance on his rival. As the Turk knows no higher happiness on earth than the gratification of his voluptuous desires, and as his heast is full of it, his lips overflow with it, and it forms the darling subject of its conversation; here his habitually serious countenance brightens up, and his fancy is sufficiently awakened to furnish him with the

the necessary images. Those, who are strongly built, live upon a generous and nourishing diet, and belong to the beautiful races of man, are justly renowned for herculean powers. But as they enter upon the course of pleasure at too early an age, they preserve the reputation of superior prowess for only a short time.

Avarice, too, is a characteristic of the Turks at Algiers. Their originat indigence lays the first foundation of this passion. In the sequel, domestic cares, and the extraordinary expenditure necessary to smooth their way to promotion and to the offices of the state, render parsimony a duty, which at last degenerates; into the most sordid avarice. The Turk however has likewise his good. One may almost always rely on his word, and reckon upon his fidelity and promised assistance; he is a stranger to dissimulation and to deceitful evasions. A Turk will seldom secretly purloin any thing; whatever he takes, he takes openly and by force, from pride or revenge. He as much abhors cunning and deceit, as he does pusillanimity and cowardice. It must be observed, however, that among the Turks, their naturat disposition to these virtues becomes considerably weakened in

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proportion as they rise to high honours and dignities. The Turks not only think, but act tolerantly; at the most, they pity those, who profess not their religion. Some of them even think to nobly and rationally, to condemn those of a different persuasion merely for following the dictates and conviction of their consciences. Nay, there are not wanting instances of Turks exhorting their Christian slaves to the observance of the external rites of Christian worship. Renegadoes are by the most of them despised. In general, the Algerine Turk is equally a stranger to fanaticism and bigotry; he hates both.

The privileges and prerogatives of the Turks here are merely personal. They pay no poll-tax, and have an exclusive title to rise to the first offices of the state; to the dignity of Dey, none but a genuine Turk can be exalted. No Turk can be punished except by the express command of the Dey. When condemned to death, the mode of putting them to death, according to rule, is by strangling; sometimes, though rarely and for secret reasons of state, the execution is performed by the administration of a dose of poison in a cup of coffee. To their other privileges must like-

they undoubtedly belong to the most intelligent and cultivated part of the inhabitants of Algiers, from whose conversation a European may derive entertainment and instruction. They have likewise a genius for the arts, and the most expert artist and artificers of the country are Coloris.

The second grand division of the inhabitants of Algiers are the *Moors*. Under this general name are comprehended the *Moors*, properly so called; the *Cabyls* mixed with *Brebers (Berbers)* and several proper *Arabian tribes*. The *Moors* in the Algerine dominions (*Mauri, Mauritani*) must not be confounded with the *Negroes*, the more, so as their natural colour is as white and beautiful, as that of the natives of the South of France, of Spain and Italy. The country-people indeed, who expose themselves half nacked to the burning rays of the sun, have an adust and reddish-yellow appearance: but this is not the natural colour of their bodies.

With respect to their moral character, the Moors of this country are inferior to the Turks. They are malicious, false, cowardly, revengeful, fanatical, ignorant, superstitious, fraudulent, avaricious, and, as far as regards the lower class, like-

likewise thievish and rapacious. But, then, they are more active than the Turks, and especially have a turn for commerce and mechanic arts. The Moors, who live in the cities, do not appear in so odious a light: for, by their frequent intercourse and dealings with other nations, they become more polished. They are likewise, for the most part, in easy circumstances, and some of them even rich. The Turks are hated, and even despised, by the Moors, who reject and avoid all connection and inter-marriage with them and the Coloris. But they dare not openly shew their hatred and pride; on the contrary, they are obliged to take refuge in dissimulation and flattery and to purchase with presents patrons and protectors among the Turks. The less wealthy Moors in the towns are, for the most part, artificers, many of them likewise follow the sea-service. Among the rich, and those of a higher rank, we find some, who even are fond of books, and apply to the study of the sciences; but their knowledge extends not beyond the Koran, and history, as told by the Arabian writers and chronicles. The greatest villains in the cities are found among the lowest class of Moors: these cannot be kept within bounds and restrained from crimes of every

kind, but by extreme severity, bordering on cruelty. The Biscaris form a small exception. Very few of the country people, who are Moors, are wealthy; the greater part have hardly a sufficiency to satisfy their most pressing wants. On them rests with all its weight, the despotic pressure of the government and its tax-gatherers and agents. They are ignorant, rude and uncultivated, and strangers to all the advantages and comforts of social life. They retain the ancient custom of distinquishing themselves by families and tribes. In the towns, this distinction is no longer attended to, which circumstance would seem to corroborate the opinion of those, who maintain, that the inhabitants of the cities are descendants of the Moors, who were expelled from Spain and Portugall. Many Moorish families to not remain constantly at a fixed place of abode, but lead a nomadical life. Some of the poorest settle on the estates of the wealthy Moors, Turks or Coloris, where they earn their subsistence by cultivating the land, under certain conditions. These, fare better than their nomadical brethern, are more civilized, nor have so savage and frightful an appearance. Among all the Moorish tribes in the country, poligamy prevails; but in the towns they seldom

seldom avail themselves of this privilege. Into the chief military corps, or the infantry, the Moors are never admitted; but the whole cavalry of the Dey of Algiers is composed of them, for the Turks and Coloris seldom serve as horse soldiers. This body of cavalry are no bad troops; but they are not much esteemed, as the government cannot rely upon them so confidently, as upon the infantry; besides, from the mountainous state of the country, cavalry cannot be so often and usefully employed.

The Moorish mountaineers are called Cabyles or Cabeyls. They are partly the immediate descendants of the most ancient inhabitants of the country, and are in this respect frequently denominated *Brobers* or *Berbers;* partly the mixed progeny of the aborigines and of the nations, who in former times invaded and settled in the country; but all of them have always been and still are distinguished from the other inhabitants of the country by their language, love of freedom, and rude unpolished manners. The Cabyles too, are divided into distinct tribes, many of which are free and independant, and do not acknowledge the superiority of Algiers, especially those, who

inhabit the inaccessible ridges of mountains. The neighbouring tribes are often united by friendly alliance, without however subjecting themselves to a common head. Others live in a continual state of contention and feud with their neighbours. The most potent causes of these quarrels are the infidelity and elopement of their wives. They are in general well grown, robust, meagre and of a sunburnt, red, and often blackish-yellow complexion, and have black or dark brown hair. Their external appearance is rendered still more uncouth by dirt and tattered clothes. They generally dwell in straw-huts, however stone-houses here and there occur in their *Dascras* or villages. Their number decreases and their love of liberty likewise gradually wears away. Only the inhabitants of the highest parts of the mountains still assert their independence and defend their liberty with undaunted valour against every hostile attack. Their courage, joined to a perfect knowledge of the country, saves them from the superior force of their ennemies, as the Algerines have several times, and even no later than twenty years ago, experienced to their cost. The government therefore endeavours to maintain a good understanding and friendship, where force can

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produce no effect and often gives way to even their unreasonable demands. Thus the *Cabyles* of *Couco* are treated with great lenity, for the situation of their country is favourable and they can assemble a strong army and they carry great quantities of oil and soap for sale to Algiers. The same is the case with respect to the *Cabyles*, who inhabit the sea coast about *Bugia*, *Bona* and *Tabarca*. Among the *Cabyles*, who acknowledge no common chief, those of the greatest age are particularly honoured and only their priests, or *Marabuts* enjoy the general confidence of the tribes, and have, under the cloack of religion acquired great power and authority, which in some instances has become hereditary. These then act in the capacity of heads of the tribes, form treaties of peace, send ambassadors, and are by others, and even by the Turks, considered as the chiefs of the nation. In the vicinity of the sepulchre of a deceased *Marabut*, or saint, generally is the habitation of the Marabut of the tribe, who gives by means of a flag hoisted on a pole, erected upon the edifice, the usual sign, when the time of prayer arrives. From the same place signals are made, on the approach of an enemy, to the Cabyles, to assemble them at the appointed place of

rendezvous. The language of the Cabyles, like that of the Moors, is a dialect of the Arabic. It deviates, however, so much from the latter, that in many places *Moors* and Cabyles are not able to understand one annother.

Among the Mahometan inhabitants of the Algerine dominions may likewise be reckoned some *Arabian tribes*, who without mingling with the Moors, or most ancient possessors of the country, have to the present times, preserved themselves separate from all others, partly in a state of independene, and partly as tributaries of the Dey. They are distinguished from the rest by their language, by their rude manners, a peculiar mode of living, and, by their pride, deeming themselves better and nobler than others. Not less characteristic is their love of liberty. They live either in the desert, or in inaccessible ridges of mountains, divided into families and clans, under the patriarchical government of a *Sheic*, who may be considered as at the same time judge, instructor and leader of his tribe. Their wealth consists in their flocks and herds. With these they descend from the mountains into the plain country, whichever they think, they can do it with

with safety. To prevent their being suddenly surprised by their enemies, they place guards in every direction around them and on the first appearance of danger retire again to their mountains. The number of these nomades decreases however every year, especially in the province of Mascara, where the present Dey has made many conquests. The Arab tribes subjected to the Algerines pay a small tribute, and are treated with great lenity, for fear of irritating them to rebel and join the Cabyls and independent Arabs.

The number of Jews in the territory of Algiers is not great, but it is difficult exactly to determine it, as it is kept secret by themselves for the purpose of preventing an augmentation of the tax, which is regulated according to the number of the families settled in the country. Jews cannot acquire landed property in Algiers. They are likewise oppressed and despised, being obliged to distinguish themselves from the other inhabitants by their dress, especially by wearing clothes of dark colours. In this respect the women enjoy greater indulgence; even they, however, are forbid to appear in public with a veil. Nor is any Jew permitted to ride through the ci-

ty-gates, or in the city. A Christian slave may in case he be attacked by Moors, defend himself a Jew, on the contrary would not so easily escape with sound limbs, if he should dare to put himself in a posture of defence against the misusage of the Turks and Moors. Rich Jews therefore purchase the protection of powerful Turks, and of the European Consuls. The Algerine Jews are, generally speaking, ignorant, superstitious and fanatical in the highest degree; and, moreover, cowardly, baseminded, perfidious, avaricious and addicted to cheating; on their promise in pecuniary transactions no one can place confidence, and the greatest cheats are found among the wealthy. In affairs which concern only themselves, they are judged by their own tribunals and an elder, who is known by the name of a *king of the Jews*. One of the most pernicious customs, prevalent among them, is, that parents form marriage-contracts for their yet infant-children, who, in that case, are even married at the age of four or six years, and in their ninth or tenth year cohabit as man and wife.

The number of Negroes annually imported as slaves into Algiers amounts to from 150 to 180.

Their

Their price varies from 50 to 150 Zechins. The female negro slaves are in greater request, as attendants on the Moorish ladies, and as domestic servants, and therefore fetch a higher price than the males. Many of the negresses are likewise very frequently purchased and kept as concubines by the wealthy Turks and Moors, and not seldom preferred to the fair natives of the country. It happens however very rarely that a Turk actually marries a negress; but such inter-marriages are more frequent among the Moors and Coloris. Although all the negroes came into the country as slaves, yet the greater part of them are, either gratuitously, or in consideration of a large sum of money, manumitted by their masters. Nor are they here in general, so badly treated as in the Westindian colonies of the Europeans; they enjoy, on the contrary, a considerable portion of liberty, are not confined, or in a cruel manner overwhelmed with excessive labour. Any over-rigid or unjust treatment of them is even punished by the government. Negro and Christian slaves are, at Algiers, employed in the same offices as our domestic servants. But Jews and Christians are not permitted to keep negro slaves, who profess the Mahomedan religion. As soon

wives. If among the female captives there happen to be a lady of high rank, she remains indeed the property of the Dey, but is permitted to reside in the house of some of the free Christians. The remainder of the ship's crew are publicly sold to the highest bidder, and become the property either of the state or of private individuals. The second class of Christian slaves at Algiers consists of (what will appear strange to many of our readers) persons, who, of their own accord, enter into a state of slavery. They are for the most part deserters from the Spanish garrison in Oran and Masalquiver, who from fear, despair, ignorance or precipitancy make their escape. Oran, then, is the nursery of this kind of Christian slaves and the number of such runaways is reckoned to amount annually to about one hundred. Among them are natives of almost every country of Europe. While the author, from whom this account of Algiers is extracted, resided there, the German Oranitses were for the most part men, who, in their native country, had been forced or inveigled to enter into the army — had deserted — been picked up by Spanish or French recruiting-parties, and at last, after various intermediate adventures, been sen-

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tenced to transportation to Oran. They were almost all addicted to drunkenness, but in other respect faithful, good-natured, well behaved, laborious, and not so abandoned as the rest of their companions. Those, who were natives of France were adventurers, or had been ruined by gaming, and thus incited to the commission of the crimes, which obliged them to fly. Few of them had been reformed. They were almost without exception of a volatile and daring disposition, careless, lazy and adepts in charlatanry and knavery. The greater part of Oranites were transported smugglers. Among those from Italy were found the most abandoned wretches and the most atrocious criminals, and even among these the Neapolitans and Genoese distinguish themselves by their superior wickedness. Most of them had been banditti, high-way robbers and murderers, and been forced to fly to Spain, where, even after their transportation to Oran, they pursued their old practices, and on that account made their escape to Algiers, to avoid the punishment due to their crimes. They related with the greatest unconcern and frankness all the deeds of horror, they had formerly perpetrated. The oldest were the most hardened and shameless, probably because they had

recommences and lasts till about sun-set, when each slave again receives three coarse loaves, and a few olives. Their clothes are furnished at the expence of the Dey. After their daily labour is over, they are, for the most part, shut up in the bagnios. When the number of slaves is considerable, those of a virtuous disposition and who have formerly been accustomed to better accommodations and company, complain more of this nightly lodging than of the fatigues of the day. Filth corrupted air, and vermin in abundance, prevent the repose so necessary to them. To which may be added jests and discourse offensive to chaste ears, not to mention the abominable vices prevalent in this country; the society of abandoned Oranites, in particular, proves extremely disagreeable to many unfortunate men of worth.

The condition of the slaves of private persons is, with very few exceptions, preferable to that of those, who belong to the state. In the cities they are employed as menial servants; in the country they cultivate the gardens and vineyards. Every thing depends upon their being able to gain the favour and confidence of their masters.

The

The amorous intrigues, of which so many of the ransomed slaves boast, may in general be considered as fictions. Many private persons, especially Jews, and even the Dey and his ministers, hire out Christian slaves as servants to the free Christians, on their giving good security. Many of these slaves have then an opportunity to accumulate some money for themselves, in which case they leave their masters, take taverns in the city, where they sell wine and spirituous liquors, and often acquire considerable property.

Those, who had been captured by the Algerine corsairs frequently regain their liberty by being ransomed; but the Oranite deserters have little or no hopes of such good fortune and generally remain in slavery to the end of their lives. Sometimes however it happens, that a government, as, for instance, the French in 1784, ransomed all their countrymen without exception. The number of Christian slaves was formerly much more considerable than in 1788. In 1785, though in the preceding year all the French had been ransomed, they were computed to amount to about two thousand. In 1786 to 7 five hundred Spaniards and Neapolitans were liberated, and

about seven hundred died of the plague; so that not above 800 Christian slaves were left at that time and the most of these were deserters from Oran.

We shall conclude with a few observations relative to *renegadoes*. There are few of them in this country, and these may be divided in two classes, viz. *Jews* and *Christians*. With respect to the Jews, many zealous Mahomedans are of opinion, that it would be better, if they adopted the Christian religion, previously to their becoming proselytes to Mahometism. Of the Jews, more women than men renounce the faith of their ancestors. They are induced to embrace the dominant religion of the country, either for the purpose of being revenged of their relations or of escaping some punishment, or from motives of ambition or interest. If such a renegado be endowed with superior talents, and possess knowledge, address and courage, and have the good fortune to render his services useful to the government, he is esteemed equal to the *Coloris*, and may be raised to honourable and lucrative offices. Thus, for instance, the present admiral of the Algerine fleet is a renegado, who was formerly

merly a Jew. Renegadoes, who were Christians, are less numerous. Formerly they were eager to gain proselytes from Christianity; but at present such conversions are very rarely encouraged, nay, in most instances, not even permitted, as the proprietors of the slaves would be losers, and be deprived of the expected ransom. On the whole, in this country too they are of opinion, that it is best for every one to adhere to the religion, in which he was educated. They even despise and distrust renegadoes, and that not without reason, for the greater part of them are in their hearts attached to neither one religion nor the other.

5.

Account of the Iron Mine in the Isle of Elba, by Mr Trousson de Coudray.

Of all the kinds of iron ore, none has obtained more notice, than that of Elba; both on account of its singular beauty and richness, and the peculiar situation in which it is found. It is the general opinion, that the whole of the island is an entire mass of iron ore, and that in approaching it from the sea, the compass is so much affected by it, as no longer to preserve its polarity.

portunities of examining the situation and state of that city. In the preceding century it was one of the most flourishing places in the East Indies, and would have been so still, if it had been inhabited by a commercial and industrious nation, such as the English, French or Dutch, but the pride and laziness of its present inhabitants augment daily its decay.

The city of *Macao*, which the Chinese call *Oumoun* (fine port) is situated in 22 degrees, 20 min. of North latitude, in an advantageous and agreeable position, about thirty leagues South of *Canton*, upon the point of an island. About half a league to the North of the city is the wall of separation, about the middle of which there is a gate, an edifice, designed for the abode of the commandant, from which there is a view on all sides. To the North of this gate there is a Chinese guard under the command of an officer, or a mandarine, for the purpose of preventing any European from going out, and especially to take care, lest any priest or missionary should go into the Chinese territory. This wall is regarded as a real barrier, because it is the key of Macao, with which the Chinese can subdue this city, and com-

compel its government to comply with their will. Such is the situation of the place, that all manner of provisions must be brought from without by the Chinese; — so that the mandarins, upon the least disturbance, threaten to shut this gate and starve the city; and it has been proved by many examples, that they were able to execute their threats. It is in this manner that the Chinese obtain all they please to demand or even hint at. There are more Chinese than Portuguese at present in this city. The Portuguese government there is but the shadow of what it formerly was, and the Chinese regency labour daily to diminish it still more, and in general the mandarins shew but little deference for the Portuguese. *Macao* is regarded as a most delightful situation on account of the superb prospects, which surround it. Nature, without departing from her noble simplicity seems to have taken pleasure in adorning this spot with the most captivating views, and in scattering beauties, which the attentive contemplator finds ever new, so lavishing is variety here of her charms. The eye, while it surveys this pleasing abode, is enchanted by the prospects, which offers; on the one side the most lofty mountains and elevated rocks piled upon each

a half thick, but such an event has never happened since. The city is considerably large; it is estimated to contain 1200 houses, without including the public edifices. The houses are in general very old and much out of repair, but there are still remaining some vestiges of ancient grandeur, such as large and beautiful stone stair-cases, vast saloons, and large apartments, but without any regular order of architecture. The walls of the houses are built of an equal mixture of earth and sand, and one seventh part of lime; there are very few of brick, because this article is too dear at Macao.

The inhabitants are composed of Portuguese, of Chinese and a great number of slaves of both sexes, and of different Indian nations, so that a particular name is wanting, to specify this corrupt and dengenerated race; for the number of real Portuguese is but small, the major part of those, who call themselves so, having proceeded from a mixture of Portuguese, of Chinese, of Malays, or inhabitants of Cafraria, etc. From the first mongrel breed there have been produced Creoles and other combinations, which in their turn have also produced other mixtures, so that it

it is impossible to find in any other place in the world, a similar amalgation of all nations, of figures so fantastical, and of such variegated shades from white to the deepest black, passing thro' all the transitions of yellow and brown.

Among the female sex which compose more than two thirds of the population, beauties are as scarce as white feathers among crows. When it is considered, that the women are so much more numerous than the men, and that very few of the latter undertake any thing to gain their subsistence, because they regard mendicity as less shameful than labour, it will not appear astonishing, that the greatest misery reigns through out Macao, and, that the little which the men do gain, becomes the lot of the Chinese, who do every thing, and are the only merchants, shopkeepers and workmen, even in the timber-yards. Misery increases to such a height, that not only is the weekly distribution of alms attended every Saturday by a thousand or twelve hundred women and children, but it often happens, that charity is petioned for in the public streets and ways, by persons very well dressed, having swords by their sides, by officers of the garrison and, what

heads are covered in such a manner, that the colour of their skin can hardly be discerned. Therefore all manner of acquaintance or conversation with an honest woman is refused to strangers while the monks and the Chinese have free access to them, without inspiring any more anger than eunuchs would do, though it often happens that these pious confidants reap pleasing fruits from this security, and sport with matrimonial credulity.

If a Portuguese kills, either by design or by accident a Chinese, he is put to death. A soldier of the garrison of Macao was strangled, according to a sentence of the Chinese law, for having, while he was going his rounds in the night conformably to the command of his officer, wounded a Chinese, whom he found breaking into a house to rob it; this Chinese died of his wounds; the mandarines immediately demanded the soldier; the senate, struck with horror at this step, wished to resist it; but at length, intimidated by the menaces of the mandarines, they delivered up the victim, who expired under the hands of the executioner, in the same place in which he had given such a dangerous proof of the love of his duty.

8.

Account of the Spanish Embassy, sent to Morocco in the year 1798 and 1799. By Chr. A. Fischer of Dresden.

The following particulars are extracted from a manuscript Journal of the proceedings of the Spanish Embassy to Morocco.

On the 29th December, 1798, the small squadron, on board of which the embassador and his suite embarked, sailed from *Rio de Santi Petri*, and on the following day arrived safe at Tangiers, in spite of the English cruizers. The Spaniards were *first* saluted — an honour, which a short time before, the English had in vain endeavoured to obtain by blustering and threats. The embassador, *Don Juan Manuel Gonzalez Salmon, Intendente honorario de Exercito, et Caballero pensionado de la Real Orden de Carlos III.* is already advantageously known from *Olof Agrells* Voyage to Morrocco, and his talents, his local knowledge, and the estimation, in which he was held by the Moors, in a particular manner pointed him out, as the person best qualified to conduct this difficult negotiation. He was accompanied by a nu-

merous and splendid retinue, and carried along with him magnificent presents for the emperor and his ministers.

Nearly a fortnight elapsed, while preparations were making for their further journey; and in the mean time, the governor, and the Spanish, Danish and Swedish consul alternately feasted the embassador. At a dinner, given by the Spanish consul general, D'Antonio Salmon, brother to the embassador, an air-balloon, which he himself had made, was let of. On the balloon a sonett was printed, in which, among other similar expressions, we find these words — „*Reunen en si lo mas peregrino, los dones del Moral los mas preciosos;*" and it concludes with — „*Su gente grita enamorada: nunca Soliman muera! Carlos viva!*" In the evening the Consul's house was illuminated, and transparencies with similar verses etc. were exhibited. These circumstances seem trifling; some important conclusions may however be drawn from them. At length on the 27th of January, the Embassy set forward for *Mequinez*, escorted by 300 horsemen. They performed very short journeys, and were every where received with marks of honour and respect. The Moors

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in general seemed satisfied with the Spaniards. The Embassador for instance ordered his hautboists to play during the solemn visits paid him by the bashas, when they generally complimented him by observing: *„que en la excellencia de aquella musica se conocia la sinceridad y buena fé, con que venia el plentpotenciario Espannol.“*

On the 6th of February, the Embassy arrived in *Mequines* — the present residence of the Sultan, in the interior of Fez — and were received with the greatest distinction. It was the first time a Spanish embassador had come to the residence of the Emperor of Morocco, and the people flocked from all quarters to view him. When he entered the house, prepared for him, a large basket, full of dates, was presented to him, as a mark of the emperor's friendship, — an honour, that had never before been conferred on any foreign embassador.

Three days after his arrival, the embassador had a publick audience, and no less than 216 mules were employed in carrying the Spanish presents. The emperor gave the embassador almost gracious reception, and, among others, said:

air of the morning, and the uniformity of the surrounding objects — the canal from Naarden to Muyden flows through meadows, which only now and then are enlivened by windmills or small villa's — composed the billows, which impatience at my hitherto disagreeable journey had raised in my soul and rocked me into a soft repose. I began to form to myself a picture of the city, which I now approached, a picture as lovely and charming, as ever the enchantress *Fancy* drew of an unknown object, for which we feel ourselves interested. The second commercial city of Europe, the metropolis of a powerful country, the chief rendezvous of an honest and diligent people, might justly raise my expectation high. This expectation, blended with the recollection of the first commercial city of Germany, produced a picture, which, to my mind, presented Hamburgh on a larger scale; but, alas! the visionary colours of the picture faded on the first touch of reality.

We changed the *trekschuyt* at Muyden, and I rambled through the small town at foot. On the other side of it I found another boat, which immediately set out for Amsterdam. Both bank

of the canal were now thronged with country-houses, whose variegated figures at first amused me; but the uniformity of the architecture, and the tasteless mode of painting these buildings, soon fatigue the eye, which longs for a firmer resting point, and I was very glad, when I found it in the view of Amsterdam, which, at the distance of about two miles, arose before me with all its steeples, gates and bridges, illumined by the bright beams of the morning-sun. It was really a magnificent spectacle. The skipper greeted us with a joyful „welcome;" the rest of the company — part of which had fallen asleep — gaily cheered one another, and even the horse trotted quicker along. In a short time I landed at Amsterdam. Nothing occurred, that could have disturbed my joy on my arrival — no toll-gatherers — no exciseman to overhawl my baggage. I drove directly to the in gave my passport to the landlord, he gave it to the municipality, and now I was at liberty to do and go what and where ever I listed.

Amsterdam is one of the largest, and, I believe, I may add, one of the most beautiful cities of Europe and strongly fortified. The streets are

all broad, well paved, and — as in the other cities of the Netherlands — kept very clean. The most beautiful of these streets are incontestibly the four called *Gragts*, which derive their names from the four broad canals, which flow in a right line through the city for about four miles and a half. These canals have, on each side, broad streets, planted with rows of trees, and connected by beautiful drawbridges. But them this pleasantness is counterbalanced by many disagreeable circumstances. The canals serve to the inhabitants, as a receptable for all kind of filth, which they cast into the water from their houses; this occasions, especially in summer, a pestilent and intolerable stench. In winter, the canals send forth a nebulous exhalation, which begins to rise at about sun-set, and continues often till nine o' clock in the morning; this fog is frequently so dense, that it is impossible to distinquish the street from the canal, whence may an unwary stranger lose his life, by falling into the water. These exhalations likewise force the inhabitants to observe the high degree of cleanliness, which prevails here, and which is absolutely necessary for the preservation of their health and of the external beauty of their houses, which would

would otherwise soon be covered with a thick black incrustation. Next to these *Gragts*, the most beautiful street of Amsterdam is the *Kalvers-straat* not so much on account of its breadth and cleanliness — for it is narrow and dirty — but because it extends above a mile and a half in length, and every house presents to the eye of the stranger new objects, to occupy his attention and to excite his desires. The whole street is one continued fair, where every thing from the most trifling necessaries of life to the most costly articles of luxury may be purchased; every house is a warehouse, vying with one another in the rarity and richness of the commodities, they can contain. The politician may here meet with a considerable fund of entertainment; partly because he will observe with smiling astonishment, that a variety of English manufactures — the importation and selling of which is forbidden by several decrees — are publicly exposed for sale; partly because he will here find a number of his fraternity assembled, as the principal coffeehouses are in this street, probably on account of its vicinity to the Town-house. Of the other streets none is peculiarly distinguished, though those nearest to the haven on the Egge, will appear

narrow from want of room; they have, therefore, sunk stories, through which the usual entrance leads; but, besides, every house has steps, which lead directly into the first story, and the way by which strangers and visitors usually enter.

The public edifices in Amsterdam deserve the most honourable testimony. Here there has been no sparing of the ground, for they are all large, and some of them beautiful buildings. Among the rest, the houses belonging to the society known by the name of *Felix meritis* is particularly distinguished by its noble style of architecture.

On the other hand there is a total want of beautiful and spacious public places or squares. That in which the Town-house — and now likewise the tree of liberty — stand, is very irregular and too much crowded with buildings. The market-places, as the butter-market, the water-market etc. scarce deserve to be mentioned. The most pleasant spot in the whole city, I found on the bridge, known by the name of *Pont des Anowrena*, where there is an excellent prospect. On the one side I glanced over the river down upon the city, and the busy bustle of its laborious inhabi-

habitants; — I overlooked many of the bridges situated lower; and the houses, which, with the row of trees on the Amstel from two beautiful side-lines, and in the back ground in the shape of an amphitheatre, to which the lofty spires, that emulously rise at a greater distance in the city, give a picturesque appearance. On the other side, the eye glides adown the silver-stream of the Amstel, dwells upon a thousand small boats, *treckschuyts* and larger vessels, with which the river is covered, reposes on the shades of trees, that adorn its banks, delights in the bustle of the busy multitude, in the splendour of the horsemen, the coaches and the yachts, till, with the stream, it loses itself in the obscurity of distance.

This is the most charming spot in Amsterdam, and, I am almost tempted to say, the only one, which can have any charms for a stranger. Public walks there are none, except what are called *Plantagen* be reckoned such; but these consists of only some rectilinear stiff rows of trees, planted, however, at so great a distance from one another, that they only serve to excite an unsatisfied longing after shade. He who has accustomed himself to seek for delight and refreshment in the

who are divided into active and passive. In their assembly-house, where all the members daily meet to read the newspapers and to play, they have a cabinet of natural history, which is not yet very considerable, but a good foundation is laid for a more complete collection. In the house of the sociciety *Felix meritis* young painters likewise receive instructions in their art. In general, indeed, the Amsterdamers are fond of painting and drawing, and at the house of every man of rank and *bon ton* you may be certain of meeting with a more or less good collection of engravings and pictures, the latter commonly of the Flemish School. Since the revolution a collection of pictures, taken from the different publick buildings, has been placed in a large apartment of the Town-house. In this collection there are many excellent pieces; among others, Rembrandts celebrated night piece — The Patrole.

This, then, is all I have to say to you of the state of learning in Amsterdam. I should indeed wish to make a few remarks on the here prevalent mode of education, but this is, perhaps, not the proper place for such ditcusions; and as willingly will you dispense me with my treating

of

of the favourite theme of the Amsterdamers, viz. theology, as here likewise I must load you through fields overgrown with thorns and thistles, and could you entertain only with proofs of the good intention and restless zeal of the Dutch divines, especially if you gave me permission to serve up a catalogue of the refutations of Paine's deistical principles, which appeared during my residence there. I now conduct you to the public amusements. You may yourself decide, whether the cultivated stranger will find in them a compensation for the want of literary entertainment.

In this list the first place is due to the theatres. There are three of them, the German, French and Dutch. At the first Opera's only are performed, in which Mad. Lange — who acted before on the Hamburgh stage — performs the principal parts, and Mr. Gelhaar gains much applause as buffoon. The orchestra is pretty good — and the music generally commences with some patriotic air, as indeed it does at all the theatres. He who can accommodate himself to the taste of the Hollanders, will not be altogether unsatisfied at the Dutch theatre. Several of the acters perform tolerably well and the most esteemed are

Mr and Mrs Suvek, who act the heroic parts. No regard is here paid to the selecting of proper pieces, or rather there are no good ones to select, at least I saw only bad ones, and several that were only fit for children. The dresses and scenery at this theatre are excellent and the dancers have arrived at very great proficiency in their art. It is worth the while to see such a ballet as *Lodoiska*, in which managers and dancers exert all their powers to satisfy the connoisseur. At the French theatre, Messieurs Berlin and Schwenzer particularly distinguished themselves, and by their departure the company lost two of its chief supports. A Parisian actor, named Baptiste, who, during my stay at Amsterdam, several times made his appearance in the buffoon-parts, deservedly excited extraordinary attention. At this theatre, too, the choice of pieces for representation is regulated solely by the unfortunately very corrupt taste of the public; sometimes however they performed plays, which were interesting on account of their allusions and reference to the history of the day. Concerts are very frequent in Amsterdam and, as may be supposed, differ much as to their degree of excellence. The best are given in the concert-room at the *Felix meri-*

tis,

tis, but to these no one is admitted without a ticket from a member of the society. The other concerts are very seldom attended by persons of rank.

Public balls, routs and dancing parties, are indeed very often advertized; but there likewise one seldom meets with persons of a superior rank. These entertainments are only for the lower classes, and by the most of these they are frequented, not merely for the amusement of dancing, but with other by-views.

For men the coffeehouse is the chief place of recreation and centre of amusement. This appears from the extraordinary number of such houses, which are alway's crowded. Politicks form the principal part of the entertainment here. They read as many newspapers as possible; and then discuss their contents, whilst smoaking a pipe of tobacco. A few indeed occasionally play at chess or billiards, but rarely, however and for the most part only young people.

From this short sketch you see that a man of a cultivated taste can find no recreation in the

public amusements of Amsterdam, and his lot will appear still more worthy of commisseration, when I assure you, that for the polished stranger there is not entertainment to be found in private companies. This is not owing to any want of hospitality or obliging disposition on the part of the citizens of Amsterdam, but to their contracted and partial views of things. A letter of recommendation to a merchant of Hamburgh procures inummerable advantages, interesting acquaintances, repeated invitations, instructors and companions to shew him the curiosities of the city — in short, *One* recommendation is sufficient to render a sejournment in Hamburgh extremely agreeable. In Amsterdam, on the contrary, the merchant to whom you have a letter of introduction, gives you a most polite reception, invites you to dinner on that or the following day. Here you find the company composed entirely of men — at most only the lady of the house; eat of the most exquisite dishes, drink wines still better and converse on politicks (for as a stanger is acquainted with neither the *chronique scandaleuse*, nor the bargains of the change, and the Amsterdamers in general take no pleasure in other subjects, any other conversation cannot easily take place) —

and

and thus have reaped the fruits of your recommendation, except, perhaps, that you may once more be fed in a similar manner.

One of the chief pleasures of the Amsterdamers is to give and partake of such dinners in select family parties, or to visit one another to tea; but then they rarely invite strangers, who, especially since the last revolution, are treated with far less kindness and hospitality, than before, as since that period party-spirit rages with the most absolute sway, and has a most baneful influence on the public morals, on the state of society and on the treatment of strangers. Into whatever company you go, they anxiously endeavour to find out your political and religious opinions. If they are repugnant to the principles professed by the company, you may be certain of not being again invited; on the contrary you will find every possible obstacle thrown in your way during your stay in the city. If you imagine that you may guard against there inconveniences by remaining silent, you would soon be convinced of your mistake: they would interpret your silence and your actions, till they thought, they had found out to what party you belonged.

This spirit of party is every where visible, and every where maintains its influence. I myself was present, when a cultivated and esteemable man was refused admittance to the *Felix Meritis*, because he was attached to the Orange party, and that society is composed of Patriots.

10.

History of Norwich Manufactures.

Among all the various articles of information, which compose your useful miscellany, none have a stronger claim to the attention of the true lover of his country, than those which relate to the manufactures of this kingdom (England). To the speculative inquirer they will serve to unfold the causes of that vast wealth, flowing first into the main trunks of commerce, from thence diffused into ten thousand smaller streams, and still proceeding through an infinite number of minute ramifications; and to the statesman, who shall contemplate the present state of our manufactories, languid and decaying, they cannot fail to exhibit a striking proof of the dreadful effects of war. Few possess the ability to give to a subject of this nature so much interest as is to be found in

Dr.

Dr. Aikins History of the Manufactories of Manchester and its vicinity, neither does any manufactury afford so many advantageous circumstances to embellish a dry narrative. The manufactures of Norwich require but little machinery; only that of the most common kind is used, so that this account can be enlivened by no details of that sort.

That the county of Norfolk was famous for the manufacture of wool from the earliest period, when that art came to be known in this island, may be fairly concluded from the circumstance of its still retaining the primitive mode of spinning wool with the ancient spindle and distaff; a practice unknown, I believe, in every other part of the kingdom, *). In the reign of Henry the 1st an inundation having caused many of the Flemings to quit their country, part of them are supposed to have landed in this county, and to have settled at *Worstead*, now an obscure town in it, which is said to have given its name to the class of manufactures, which originated therein, and soon spread through its neighbourhood, till Norwich became their head-quarters. That they be-

*) It is still used in Portugall.

gan to be of some consequence in the reign of Edward II. appears, from a patent granted to John Pecock, for the measuring of every piece of worsted made in the city of Norwich, or the county of Norfolk; but which, being found to check and depress the rising spirit of the trade, was soon after recalled. Other laws for regulating the sale of these *worsteds*, were enacted in the reign of Richard II. and the manufactory continued to increase during the succeeding reigns, so that, according to Blomfield (the Historian of Norfolk) the sale of stuffs, made in Norwich only, in the reign of Henry VIII., amounted to 100,000 L. annually, besides stockings which were computed at 60,000 L. more. At this early period of our manufactory, it was judged necessary for supporting its credit, to appoint officers, whose business it should be to inspect the goods and by an act of Henry the VIth four wardens were ordered to be chosen for the city of Norwich, and other four for the county of Norfolk — „*to* „*do right and make due search of worsteads in* „*Norwich and Norfolk and which shall set down* „*orders for the true making thereof*"; and it having been discovered „*that divers persons in* „*Norwich and Norfolk make untrue wares, by*

„*which*

„*which means they loose their ancient estimation* „*beyond sea*," etc. The number of wardens for each department, were, by a statute of Edward IV. increased from four to eight. From this it appears that the stuffs made at this time in this city, had found their way into foreign countries, most probably into Holland and Flanders, and on account of the advantages, which the nation already derived from the manufacture of its wools, the policy of keeping that commodity at home began to be more, and more apparent, and accordingly partial restrictions were laid upon its exportation. Not only did these manufactures flourish in Norwich, and in the town of Worstead, (where they first took root) but we find, by an act passed during the reign of Henry the VIII. „*that the making of worsteads saies, and stam-* „*mins, which had greatly increased in the city* „*of Norwich and county of Norfolk, was now* „*practised more busily and diligently than in ti-* „*mes past at Yarmouth and Lynn.*; — the wardens of those towns were therefore put under the jurisdiction of Norwich. If any regard may be paid to the preamble of an act of parliament passed in this reign, the county of Norfolk produced a breed of sheep and from their wool fabri-

cated a kind of worstead yarn, peculiar to itself; this act, to which I allude, asserts, „that worstead yarn is the private commodity of the city of Norwich and the county of Norfolk, i. e. spun of the wool growing, and of sheep bred, only within the county of Norfolk, *and in no place elsewhere.*" What where the peculiar qualities of this yarn made from Norfolk-wool, it is not easy now to determine; but, if the sheep were of the same *short-wooled* kind, which now feed upon our pastures and walks, it was wholly inapplicable to the distaff (or as it now began to be called *rock*) spinning. This county stands unrivalled at this day for the curious fine texture of its worsted yarn, which, however is not made from the wools of the county, but from those of Lincoln, and some rich marshes bordering upon it. During the reign of Edward VI. and Philip and Mary new articles of manufacture continued from time to time to be introduced into this city. Philip and Mary passed an act to encourage the making of the *Russels, Satins, Satins-reverses and Fustians* of Naples, as *Edward* had before to regulate the manufacture of *Hats Dornicks* and *Coverlets;* these, with the *Saies* and *Stammins*, mentioned before and broad and narrow woolen cloths,

cloths, (which were also made here in considerable quantities) composed the trade of the county. But nothing contributed so rapidly to advance its prosperity, as the arrival of those industrious swarms from the Dutch and Walloon hives, who fled hither from that religious tyger, the Duke of Alba (Alva). With them they imported the art of fabricating many articles, before unknown in this country; their names were various as their qualities „*mingled with silk and saitrie or linen yarn* etc." and it may not be unworthy of remark, that in 1575 the Dutch elders presented in court (at Norwich) a new work called *Bombasins* „for the making elegant kind stuff, this city has ever since been in high repute. Just at this moment, when the country was deriving inestimable benefits from the skill and labour of these refugees, the spirit of persecution which was renewed against them in this asylum (probably through the jealous interference of some native manufacturer) had nearly deprived us of these advantages. The major of this city was ordered to examine them, „*touching the horrible and* „*damnable doctrine of the anababtists* from which however they excupated themselves and obtained a respite, till archbishop Laud, with

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injunctions, drove many hundreds of the manufacturers into Holland, where they and their arts were protected and cherished. But with the mild spirit of toleration returned the vigour and enterprize of trade, and the exiles brought back, with new specimens of their inventive art. The articles which were anciently the chief manufactures of the city, now became so entirely obsolete, that it was thought necessary to pass an act in the 7th of George I. to compel the makers of any sort of stuffs to become freemen of the city, as were formerly the manufacturers of *Russels*, *Fusticaus* etc.; and the reason assigned for this was, that a constant supply of able magistrates might at all times be found. During this long period it does not appear, that those, who manufactured these goods for the foreign trade, were the exporters of them. Many of the master-weavers lived in the villages near Norwich; these brought their stuffs to the market, and, as well as those who resided in the city, sold them to a sort of a middle-man, who supplied the London merchants with them. It required a large extension of capital and of knowledge to add the character of the merchant, to that of the manufacturer: to some, the general advantage of this union of

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characters may still be held problematical, and it has been maintained (how wisely I pretend not to determine), that the public prosperity stood upon a firmer basis, while the manufactory was in the hands of a large body of masters of circumscribed capital, but who made quick returns by means of the merchants, who resorted to them, than it does at this present time, when the whole trade is conducted by a few houses, who command large capitals and who add the sagacity of the merchant to the skill of the manufacturer. This question, standing by itself, is of considerable importance and as the same system is beginning to take place in *Leeds*, *Halifax* and some other manufacturing towns, I should like to see the matter discussed by some able correspondent. But the trade of Norwich did not formerly so much depend upon the foreign demand as it does at this time. From the beginning of the present century, 'till within this forty years, this kingdom alone took off a very considerable quantity of stuffs of various kinds; the *crapes* of Norwich were in very common use, and during the administration of Sir Robert Walpole, and so long as the city had powerful friends at court, the public mournings were always ordered to be in Norwich

wich crapes. This unpleasant fabric, unsupported by ministerial influence, soon fell into disgrace, and gave way to more elegant manufactures, and the destruction of our *home trade* was completed by the prevalence of articles made from cotton, which the inventions of Arkwright and others rendered much cheaper than formerly. Excluded in a large degree from a share in the trade of this kingdom, our merchant-manufacturers did not sit down supinely, without making an effort for compensation in some other way the loss which they sustained. The correspondence which they had begun on the continent, they now extended to every point of the compass, by sending their sons to be educated in Germany, Spain, and Italy, they qualified *) them for the execution of their plans, and at the same time cultivated a more familiar connection with those countries. Their travellers penetrated through Europe, and their pattern-cards were exhibited in every principal town, from the frozen plains of Moscow to the milder climes of Lisbon Seville, and Naples.

*) A qualification for the compting-(counting) house, is not all that has been derived from this education; we are indebted to it, for some of our most elegant and faithful translations from the German.

ples. The Russian peasant decorated himself with his sash of gaudy *Callimanco*, and the Spanish *Hidalgo* was sheltered under his light cloak with of Norwich Camblett. The introduction of their articles into Spain, Italy, Poland, and Russia, soon made the manufacturers ample amends for the capriciousness of fashion in their own country. The taste of foreign nations was now consulted; the gravity of the Spaniard was suited in his plain, but fine textured *Camblett*, the loom was taught to imitate the handyworks of Flora, and the most garish assemblage of colours of every dye, satisfied the vanity of the Suabian and Bohemian female. The great fairs of Frankfort; Leipzic, and of Salerno, were thronged with purchasers of these commodities, which were unsuccessfully imitated by the manufacturers of Saxony. Norwich was now crowded with its looms; every winters evening exhibited to the traveller entering its walls, the appearance of a general illumination; from twenty miles around, the village weavers resorted to it with the produce of their looms and though the distaff and the spinning wheel, throughout Norfolk and Suffolk were incessantly plied, yet the produce was inadequate to the demand. It became necessary to increase the

the importation of bay yarn from Ireland, of which more annually was consumed here, than, but a few years before, was imported into all England. From this meridian of prosperity, this manufactory began to shew symptoms of declension, before we entered upon this war, which has so effectually ruined it; yet, in a tolerable trade, it was estimated, that about fifty thousand tods of wool, chiefly of the growth of Lincolnshire, were combed and spun in the county of Norfolk, which employed about five hundred combers, and furnished spinning-work for most of the poor women and children in the county. Besides this, great quantities of yarn were brought from all the neighbouring counties, and at that time, even from Scotland.

Some years ago the returns of the manufactory were estimated to be about 1,200,000 L. per annum; at present, when the merchant is shut out from most of his foreign markets by war and from his own by fashion, they must fall very much below this estimate; but, supposing them to be only 800,000 L. the price of labour bestowed on them will be 685,000 L. whilst the value of the raw materials, dying stuff, oil, soap, and coals,

months by the commissioners for that purpose; but as only a few lots are now remainig, their price of course increases fast; so fast indeed, that in my opinion, those, who have money to spare, could not at present lay it out to greater advantage, than in the purchase of these lots. —

The city of Washington does not at present contain more than five or six hundred houses. It is most beautifully situated on the banks of the Potowmac, and is flanked by the Annacosta river; both these rivers will admit vessels of any size as high as the town. Besides these the Tibur passes through its heart, which will soon be made navigable for small crafts. The land within the city waves in gentle curvatures, never rising into a hill, never sinking into a valley, seldom into a flat. It is surrounded by a complete amphitheatre of hills, which at all times beautiful, were peculiarly so during the month of May. The foliage of the trees was of a much more vivid green than in England, perhaps owing to the much stronger sight, produced by the difference of climate in this country; the peach, apple and cherry trees, were every where in blossom, and before these were well off, the white though

poisonous dig-wood, charmingly diversified the scenery, which was still further embellished by the delicately blushing, yet not less deleterious, ivy.

About three miles above the city are what are called the *Little-Falls*, a romantic spot, where the water rushes over immense masses of rocks, in vast sheets of white foam. Over this is thrown a very neat bridge, which, seen at the distance of about two miles, seems to connect two lofty mountains. From hence the water rushes into a romantic valley through which, and near the side of the Potowmac, gently glides a canal, which, when finished, will connect and render navigable the different parts of that river. It is expected, that this canal will be completed next year, when the produce of the richest back country in America for upwards of two hundred and eighty miles, will be brought to this city.

During the winter months we saw no birds but since the spring has again made all nature smile, they have visited us in great abundance and variety. It is difficult, amidst a profusion of beauty, to determine, which species are the most be-

beautiful, but some of the woodpecker tribe have certainly a strong claim to preference; the regularity and strength of colouring in their plumage, far exceeds any thing of the kind, I ever saw before, and yet, perhaps, even these must yield to the Baltimore bird, whose rich golden feathers have in them a degree of indescribable elegance.

The twilight here is of much shorter duration than in England, and as soon as the sun declines it becomes quite dark, but the nights are beautifully illuminated by innumerable swarms of the fire-fly, which glitter in the air. These little animals are only phosphoric under their wings, so that in flying, they are aternately visible and invisible and much resemble sparks falling from a lighted pipe, but have a very pleasing effect. We have fish for a great part of the year, very fine, very plentiful and very cheap; the rock-fish is, I think, the finest, I ever ate. The thermometer this day stands at seventy eight, a degree of heat, which would be considered as extreme in your country; but certain it is, that the heat of this climate is by no means so oppressive as that of your more northern one. A remark to this effect is, I think, made in Bry-

man, who alone had the merit of annexing the plantation of Barbadoes to the crown of England, seems

de; which laws so absolutely proclaimed, and by strength of right supported as they are granted, we will, enjoin, charge, and command all and every subject and liege people of us, our heirs and successors, so far as them they do concern, inviolably to keep and observe, under the pains therein expressed; so as notwithstanding the aforesaid laws be agreeable and not repugnant unto reason, nor against it; but as convenient and agreeable as may be, to the laws, statutes, customs, and rights of our kingdom of England." — „We will also, of our princely grace, for us, our heirs and successors, straightly charge, make and ordain, that the said province be of our allegiance, and that all and every subject and liege people of us, our heirs and successors, brought or to be brought, and their children, whether there born or afterwards to be born, become natives and subjects of us, our heirs and successors, and be as free as they that were born in England; and so their inheritance within our kingdom of England, or other our dominions, to seek, receive, take, hold, buy, and possess, and use and enjoy them as his own, and to give, sell, alter, and bequeath them at their pleasure; and also freely, quietly, and peaceably, to have and possess all the liberties, franchises, and

pri-

seems to have been shamefully neglected. The Earl of Marlborough, having secured to himself and his posterity, the gratification I have mentioned, deserted him; and the Lord Carlisle, having done him premeditated injury, became his irreconcileable enemy. Courteen, however, found a friend in William Earl of Pimbroke, who represented his case in such a light to the King, as to obtain a revocation of Carlisle's patent, and a grant to himself in trust for Courteen.

But the hopes of this worthy citizen were of short continuance. The Earl of Carlisle was, at that juncture, absent from the kingdom, a circumstance which gave some colour to his charge of injustice and precipitancy in the proceeding. On his return to England, he complained that he had been condemned and deprived of his property unheard; and the monarch on the throne, who seems, through the whole of his unfortunate reign, rather

privileges of this kingdom, and them to use and enjoy as liege people of England, whether born, or to be born, without impediment, molestation, vexation, injury or trouble of us our heirs and successors, any statute, act, ordinance, or proviso, to the contrary notwithstanding."

rather to have wanted resolution to pursue the right path, than sagacity to discern it, trod back his ground a second time; for unable to resist the clamorous importunity of a worthless favourite, he actually annulled the grant to the Earl of Pembroke, and, by second letters patent to the Earl of Carlisle, again restored to him the privileges of which he had himself, a short time before deprived him.

Thus by an act of power, which its repugnancy and absurdity alone rendered illegal, the Earl of Carlisle again found himself lord paramount of Barbadoes; and in order completely to ruin all the interests in the colony of his competitor, he proceeded to distribute the lands to such persons as chose to receive grants at his hands on the terms proposed to them. A society of London merchants (*d*) accepted ten thousand acres, on conditions which promised great advantage to the proprietor; but they were allowed the liberty of sending out a person to preside over their concern

(*d*) The names of those merchants were Marmaduke Brandon, William Perkin, Alexander Banister, Robert Wheatley, Edmond Forster, Robert Swinnerton, Henry Wheatly, John Charles, and John Farringdon

cerns in the colony, and they made choice for this purpose of Charles Woolferstone, who repaired to the island, accompanied with sixty-four persons, each of whom was authorized to take up one hundred acres of land.

These people landed on the fifty of July, 1628, at which time Courteen's settlement was in a very promising condition; but Woolferstone declared it an encroachment and usurpation, and being supported by the arrival of Sir William Tufton, who was sent out as chief governor by Lord Carlisle, in 1629, with a force sufficient for the maintenance of his pretensions, he compelled the friends of Courteen to submit; and the interests of the latter were thenceforth up swallowed and for gotten (e).

The facts which I have thus recited have been related so often by others, that an apology might be necessary for their insertion in this work, were

(e) In this year, Sir William Tufton gave 140 grants of land, comprizing in the whole 15,872 acres, and on the 23d of February, 1630, he passed divers laws, and among others, one for dividing the island into six parishes.

were it not, that by comparing one account with another, I have been enabled to correct some important errors in each. And the claim of the Earl of Carlisle having originally introduced and established the very heavy internal imposition on their gross produce, to which the planters of this, and some of the neighbouring islands, are to this day liable; I have thought it necessary to be particular and minute, in tracing the claim itself from the beginning. In what manner it produced the burthen in question, and how Barbadoes reverted from a proprietary to a royal government, I shall now proceed to relate.

The administration of Sir William Tufton, the first governor appointed by Lord Carlisle, proving disagreeable to his lordship, Captain Henry Hawley was sent ower in 1631 to supersede him. Tufton resenting this measure, procured the signatures of some of the planters to a petition complaining of Hawley's conduct. Hawley construed this petition into an act of mutiny on the part of Tufton, for which he had him tried and condemned by a court-martial, and with very little ceremony caused him to be shot to death; a proceeding universally exclaimed against, as a most

most horrid and atrocious murder. Hawley, however, though recalled on this account, not only escaped punishment through the interest of his noble patron, but was soon afterwards sent back again as chief governor; in which capacity he remained till 1638, when he was driven from the country by the united voice of all the inhabitants; who however permitted his brother, William Hawley, to act as commander in chief, until a governor should be nominated at home. He was succeeded by Major Hunckes, who, leaving the island in 1641. appointed Philipp Bell, Esquire, his deputy, and Bell, in 1645, was appointed chief governor (*f*). But the conduct of Hawley, thus

(*f*) During the administration of this gentleman, many salutary laws were passed; among others the following: 1st. „An Act for the continuance and observation of all acts and statutes not repealed;" which act recites that there were divers and sundry good and wholesome laws, statutes and ordinances provited, enacted, and made, assigned, and agreed upon, by and with the assent, consent and approbation of the governor council, and freeholders out of every parissi of the island intituled, A General Assembly for that purpose elected, made, and cho-

thus violent and bloody, and the support which he received from the proprietor, had alienated the

sen. And it is thereby enacted, that none of those laws shall be altered, or any thing added to to them, without the consent of a like General Assembly. And that every parish should have two representatives at least, to be elected by the freeholders.

ad. An addition to an act intituled, „ An Act for settling the estates and titles of the inhabitants of this island to their possessions in their several plantations within the same: „it is therein recited, that in a clause in the first act it is ordained, that all the inhabitants of this island, that were in quiet possession of any lands or temements by virtue of any warrant from any former governor, or by conveyance or other act in law, from them who had the same warrant, should have, hold, and enjoy the same, as their free estate; and, as some scruples had since arisen, whether an estate for life or inheritance might ce construed from the same, for want of the word their heirs; to the intent the same might be more fully explained, and all disputes of that kind for the future ablished, il is enacted that by the word as their free estates, was meant, the whole estate and inheritance of the respective plantations within this island, so that by such possession in manner a

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the minds of the new settlers from power thus delegated and abused; and the proprietor's authority lost ground every day. In the mean time, the civil war in England caused many people, of peaceable tempers and dispositions, chiefly royalists, to take refuge in this island; and the consequent ruin of the King's affairs induced a still greater number, many of whom had been officers of rank in his service, to follow their example. The emigration from the mother-country to this island was indeed so great during the commotions in England, that in 1650 it was computed there were 20,000 white men in Barbadoes, half of them able to bear arms, and furnishing even a regiment of horse to the number of one thousand.

„These adventurers," says Lord Clarendon, „planted without any body's leave, and without „being opposed or contradicted by any body." The case seems to have been, that the governor granted lands to all who applied, on receiving a gratuity for himself; and the claim of the proprie-

 tor,

by the said act is expressed, the said inhabitants are thereby adjudged and declared to have and to hold their lands of right to them, to dispose of or alienate, or otherwise to descend, or be confirmed to their heirs for ever."

tor, whether disputed in the island, or disregarded admidst the confusions at home, was at length tacitly and silently relinquished (*g*).

The colony, left to its own efforts, and enjoying an unlimited freedom of trade, flourished beyond example. In the year 1640, however, the then Earl of Carlisle, who was son and heir of the patentee, stimulated by the renown of its wealth and prosperity, began to revive his claims as hereditary proprietor; and, entering into a treaty with Lord Willoughby of Parham, conveyed to that nobleman all his rights by lease for twenty-one years, on condition of receiving one half the profits in the mean time; but justly appprehending that the resident planters might dispute his pretensions, he very readily concurred with Lord Willoughby in soliciting a commission for the latter, as chief governor, under the sanction of regal authority (*h*).

This

(*g*) Lord Carlisle had originally stipulated for an annual tribute of forty pounds of cotton wool from each person who held lands under his grant.

(*h*) When this application was made, the King was in the hands of the parliament; the commission therefore

This, though an absolute dereliction of the proprietary ship, was asked and obtained; and the Lord Willoughby, thus commissioned, embarked for his government; and, in consideration of the royal appointment, was received by the inhabitants, who were warmly attached to the King's interest, with respect and obedience. It seems probable, that at his first coming, he said nothing of his lease from Carlisle; trusting rather to future management for the re-establishment of that lord's pretensions, than to an open avowal of them on his arrival. We are told, however, by Lord Clarendon, that he obtained from the planters a promise of a contribution to the proprietor; but before it was carried into effect, the regal authority was abolished in England, and Barbadoes reduced to the obedience of the new republik, by whom another governor was appointed.

On the restoration of Charles II. and the re-establishment of the royal authority over all the

 Bri-

fore, with his Majesty's privity and approbation was signed by the Prince of Wales, at that time in Holland.

British dominions (i), Lord Willoughby, who had eight or nine years of his lease unexpired, applied to the King for leave to return to his government of Barbadoes. To this application no objection would have been made by the inhabitants, if his lordship had considered himself merely as representative of the crown; but his connection and contract with the Earl of Carlisle, were by this time sufficiently understood by the planters, who saw with astonishment that they were regarded by those great lords as mere tenants at will of their possessions. They solicited therefore the King's support and protection. „They pleaded", says Clarendon, „that they were the King's subjects; that they had repaired to Barbadoes as to a desolate place, and had by their in-

(i) On the 18th of February, 1661, his Majesty honoured thirteen gentlemen of Barbadoes with the dignity of baronetage, in consideration of their sufferings and loyalyty during the civil war: They were, Sir John Colleton, Sir James Modiford, Sir James Drak, Sir Robert Dravers, Sir Robert Hacket, Sir John Yeamans, Sir Timothy Thornhill, Sir John Witham, Sir Robert Legard, Sir John Worsum, Sir John Rawdon, Sir Edwyn Stede, Sir Willoughby Chamberlayne.

industry obtained a livilihood there, when they could not with a good conscience stay in England; that if they should now be left to those lords to ransom themselves and compound for their estates, they must leave the country, and the plantation be destroyed, which yielded his Majesty so great a revenue." Respecting the charter granted to the earl of Carlisle, they insisted positively that it was void in law; and they made two humble proposition to the King, either that his Majesty would give them leave to institute in his name, but at their own cost, a process in the Exchequer for trying the validity of the earl's patent; or that he would leave those who claimed under it (for the second Earl of Carlisle dying in the interim, had bequeathed his rights in the West Indies to the earl of Kinnoul) to their legal remedy, absolutely denying that either the late or former Lord Carlisle had justained the smallest expence in settling the colony.

Instead of consenting to either of those most reasonable propositions, the King ordered enquiry to be made into the several allegations and claims of the parties concerned, by a committee of the privy-council; before whom some of the planters

being heard, one of them, in order more readily to induce the King to take the sovereignity of the island into his own hands, offered, in the name of the inhabitants, to consent, in that case, to lay an imposition of so much in the hundred on the produce of their estates, out of which his Majesty's governor might be honourably supported, and the King dispose of the overplus, as he should think fit. So a monarch of Charles's disposition, this was too tempting a proposition to be resisted. We are informed that his Majesty received the offer very graciously: „and the next care of the committee", adds the noble historian, who was himself of that body, „was to make some computation, that might be depended upon, as to the yearly revenue, that would arise upon the imposition within the island." But the planters, who called up the next day to give satisfaction in this particular, insisted thad Mr Kendall, the person who had made the offer, had no authority to undertake for them, or the inhabitants within the island; and the utmost they could be brought to promise for themselves was, that they would use their endeavours with their friends in the island, to settle such a revenue on the crown as the circumstances of the colony would ad-

admit of, which they said the assembly alone was competent to determine.

The prospect of a revenue, though distant and uncertain, brought forward the creditors of the Earl of Carlisle, the patentee, who was indebted, it seems, at his death, in the sum of L. 80,000, and they had no hopes of being paid but from the profits of his West Indian possessions. The heirs of the Earl of Marlborough likewise put in their claim for the arrearage of the annuity of L. 300, granted under the original compromise which I have before mentioned; and the Lord Willoughby insisted ad the same time on receiving a moiety of whatever profits might arise during the remainder of the term yet unexpired in his lease. The other moiety, during that time, and the whole in reversion, was claimed by the Earl of Kinnon.

To satisfy these several claimants, and secure a perpetual revenue to the crown, was a work of difficulty, and its accomplishment seems to have been the sole aim of the King's ministers; by whom, after a tedious but partial investigation (considering the colony as wholly at the King's

mercy) it was finally ordered, that the Lord Willoughby should immediately repair to his government, and insist on the grant and establishment by the assembly of a permanent and irrevocable revenue of four and half per cent to be paid in specie, on all dead commodities, the growth of the island, shipped to any port of the world; the money arising therefrom to be applied as follows.

First, Towards an honourable and immediate provision for the Earl of Kinnon, who, it was alledged, had sacrificed his fortunne in the King's service, and who covenanted, on such provision being secured to him, to surrender, the Carlisle's pateut to the crown.

Secondly, towards satisfaction and still discharge of the Earl of Marlborough's annuity:

Thirdly, it was stipulated that the surplus should be divided equally between the creditors of the Earl of Carlisle and the Lord Willoughby, durig tbe term yet unexpired of his lordship's lease. On the expiration thereof, the remainder, after providing L. 1,200 per annum for the King's governor for the time being, was ordered to be paid

paid among the said creditors till their demands were fully satisfied and discharged.

Fourthly, on the extinction of those several incumbrances, it was stipulated that the whole revenue, subject to the charge of L. 1,200 per annum to the governor, should be at the disposal of the crown.

On these terms it was understood that the proprietary government was to be dissolved, and that the planters were to consider themselves as legally confirmed in possession of their estates, and to carry into effect the important point, on which the whole arrangement depended (the grant of a perpetual revenue by the assembly) Lord Willoughby returned to his government in 1663.

It is not wonderful that the planters, on his lordship's arrival, though devoted to the interests of the crown, should have loudly murmured at the conduct and determination of the British government in the progress and conclusion of the whole business. Clarendon himself confesses, that the grant to Carlisle was voidable by law. The king therefore laid them under no great obligation

tion in obtaining a surrender of it. Many of th planters had been obliged to quit their nati country in consequence of their exertions in su port of the royal cause during the civil war: i the late settlement they perceived a regard e pressed towards every interest concerned but the own; and the return which they met with; bot for their former services, and also for augment ing the trade, revenue, and dominion of the pa- rent state by their recent labours, was a demand of a contribution, which they stated would amount to ten per cent. on the clear profits of their esta- tes for ever.

But their complaints, though well founded, were unavailing. The King and his governor were too deeply interested to recede. The as- sembly was called upon to forge chains for them- selves and their children, and if persuasion should fail, force was not only at hand, but was ac- tually employed to compel them to submission. Colonel Farmer, who led the party in opposition, was arrested and sent prisoner to England, on a charge of muting and treason nor was he relea- sed till after a tedious and severe confinement. Awed by this example, and sensible that no sup-

port

port could be expected from the people at home, whose privileges lay prostrate at the feel of the restored monarch, the assembly passed an act for the purposes required of them; and their posterity still bear, and it is apprehended will long continue to bear, the burthen of it (*k*)!

(*k*) I have thought it may be satisfactory to the reader to have an opportunity of perusing the act at large, which I therefore subjoin, permising that the clause which exempts the lands called the 10,000 acres, and also that which stipulates for the building a sessions-house, and a prison, and providing for all other public charges incumbent on the government, out of the monies to be raised by tha act, have been equally dis regarded by the crown. The session-house and prison were not finished until the year 1730, and the expence (upwards of L. 5,000) was then defrayed by a special tax on the inhabitants; and there was raised by other taxes no less a sum than L. 19,440. 1s. 4d. in three years (viz. from 1745 to 1748) for the repair of the fortifications.

An ACT for settling the Impost on the Commodities of the Growth of this Island; passed the 12th of September, 1663. — No. 36.

WHEREAS our late Sovereign Lord Charles the first, of blessed memory, did, by his letters patent under

loyalty to Charles the Second, were filled with amazement and indignation, on finding its provisions adopted and confirmed on the restoration of that monarch. By the regulations of this act and the establishment of the internal duty on their produce, of which I have so largely spoken, they thought themselves treated with a rigour which bordered on ingratitude, and they predicted the decline of their population, agriculture and wealth, from the effect of those measures. How far their prediction have been accomplished, a comparative state of the island at different periods will demonstrate; with which and a few miscellaneous observations, I shall dismiss my present account.

Barbadoes is situated in 13° 10′ N. lat. and in longitude 50° W. from London. It is about twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth, and contains 106,470 acres of land, most of which is under cultivation. The soil in the low lands is black, somewhat reddish in the shallow parts; on the hills of a chalky marl, and near the sea generally sandy. Of this variety of soil the black mould is best suited for the cultivation of the cane, and, with the aid of manure, has

other evidences for their said lands, and others, by reason of the ignorances of those, want sufficient and legal words to create inheritances in them and their heirs, and others that never recorded their grants, or warrants, and others that can make no proof of any grants or warrants they ever had for their lands; and yet have been long and quiet possessors of the same, and bestowed great charges thereon. And whereas the acknowledgement of forty pounds of cotton per head; and other taxes and composition formerly raised to the Earl of Carlisle, was held very heavy: For a full remedy thereof for all the defects afore-related, and quieting the possessions and settling the tenures of the inhabitants of this island. Be it enacted by his excellency Francis Lord Willoughby of Parham, etc. his council, and gentlemen of the assembly, and by the authority of the same, that notwithstanding the defects afore-ralated all the now right full possessors of lands, tenements, and hereditaments within this island, according to the laws and customs thereof, may at all times repair unto his Excellency for the full confirmation of their estates and tenures, and then and there shall and may receive such full confirmation and assurance, under his Majesty's great seal for this island, as they can reasonably advise or desire, according to the true intent and meaning of this act. And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that all and

every

every the payments of forty pounds of cotton per head, and all other duties, and arrears of rent which have or might have been levied, be from henge forth absolutely and fully released and made void; and that the inhabitants of this island have and hold their heirs for ever, in free and common soccage, yielding and paying therefore, at the feast of St. Michael every year, if the same be lawfully demanded, one ear of Indian corn to his Majesty, his heirs and successors for ever, in full and free discharge of all rents and services for the future whatsoever, in consideration of the release of the said forty pounds, and in consideration of the confirmation of all estates in this island as aforesaid; and in acknowledgment of his Majesty's grace and favour in sending to and appointing ever us his said Excellency, of whose prudence and moderate government we have heretofore had large experience, and do rest most assured thereof for the future. And for as much as nothing conduceth more to the peace and prosperity of any place, and the protection of every single person therein than that the pulick revenue thereof may be in some measure proportioned to the pulick charges and expences; and also well weighing the great charges that there must be of necessity in maintaining the honour and dignity of his Majesty's authority here; the publick meeting of the sessions, the often attendance of the council, the reparation of the forts, the build-

building a sessions-house and a prison, and all other pulick charges incumbent on the government do, in consideration thereof, give and grant unto his Majesty, his heirs and successors for ever, and do most humbly desire your Excellency to accept these our grants; and we humbly pray your Excellency that it may be enacted, and be it enacted by his Excellency Francis Lord Willoughby of Parham, captaingeneral and chief governor of this island of Barbadoes, and all other the Caribbee islands, and by and with the consent of the council and the gentlemen of the assembly, representatives of this island, and by authority of the same, That an impost or custom be, from and after publication thereof, raised, upon the native commodities of this island, after the proportions, and in manner and form as is hereafter set down, and appointed; that is to say, upon all dead commodities of the growth or produce of this island, that shall be shipped off the same, shall be paid to our Sovereign Lord the King, his heirs and successors for ever, four and a half in specie for every five score.

And be it further enacted and declared by the authority aforesaid, That if any goods before-mentioned, on which the said custom is imposed, and due, by this act, shall at any time hereafter be shipped or put into any boat or other vessel to the intent to

be carried into any parts beyond the seas the said imposition due for the same not paid, compounded for, or lawfully tendered to the collectors or their deputies, or not having agreed with the commissioners for that purpose to be appointed, or their deputies for the same, according to the true intent and meaning of the said act that then, and from thence forth, shall the said goods be forseit, the moiety thereof to be to our Sovereign Lord the King and the other to him that shall inform, seize and sue for the same in any court of record within this island; which grants are left to your Excellency's own way of levying, in full confidence and assurance that your Excellency will take such course for the collecting and gathering of the said impost, without any charge, duty or fees, as may be most for the ease of the people of this island.

Provided nevertheless, that neither this act nor any thing therein contained, shall extend or be construed to bar his Majesty, or his said Excellency, from his or their right to any land granted, or any incroachments made upon the sea, since the year one thousand six hundred and fifty, or to any lands commonly called or known by the name of The Ten Thousand Acres; the merchants land, granted by the late Earl of Carlisle, or his father, unto Marmaduke Rawden, Esquire, William Perkins, Alexander Bannister,

nister, Edmund Forster, Captain Wheatley, and others their associates, on certain covenants and conditions: Provided also, that the growth and produce of the said lands, mentioned in the preceding proviso, be not liable to any tax, impost, or custom, imposed by this act; any thing in the same seeming to the contrary notwithstanding.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That one act made the seventeenth day of January one thousand six hundred and fifty, intituled, An act importing the customs imposed and granted by the council, and gentlemen of the assembly, to the Right Hounourable Francis Lord Willoughby of Parham, Lord Lieutenant-General of the Province of Carolina, and Governor of Barbados; as also, his Lordship's confirmation of the right of the inhabitants of this island to their several estates, with the tenure and rent thereon created, and is from henceforth repealed, made void; frustrate, of none effect, to all intents, conrtruction, and purposes whatsoever.

In 1684, the assembly of this island proposed to farm the four and a half per cent for eleven years, for the anual rent of L. 6,000 Sterling, to be paid into the exchequer; the governor and

a mile of it: his salary was raised by Queen ing
from twelve hundred to two thousand poun the
annum, the whole of which is paid out of th insp
chequer, and charged to the account of the
and a half per cent duty. The form of the go ott
ment of this island so very nearly resemble
of Jamaica, which has already been described
it is unnecessary to enter into detail, excep
observe that the council is composed of tw
members, and the assembly of twenty-two.
most important variation respects the court of c
cery, which in Barbadoes is constituted of the
vernor and council, whereas in Jamaica the go
nor is sole chancellor. On the other hand, in
badoes, the governor sits in council, even w
the latter are acting in a legislative capacity.
In Jamaica, would be considered improper and
constitutional. It may also be observed, that
courts of grand sessions, common pleas and
chequer, in Barbadoes, are distinct form each oth
and not, as in Jamaica, united and blended in o
supreme court of judicature.

I shall close my account of Barbadoes with
the following authentick documents:

An

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TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

the court of France. — Grenada, etc. restored to Great Britain by the peace of 1783. — *Present state of the colony in respect to cultivation, productions and exports; government and population, Postscript: Appendix.*

Grenada was discovered by, and received its name from Christopher Columbus in his third voyage, in the year 1498. He found it possessed by a numerous and warlike people, amongst whom it does not appear that the Spaniards ever attempted to force a settlement. They had a nobler prize to contend for on the continent and a century elapsed before the other nations of Europe considered the regions of the new world as countries, wherein all men might seize on what suited their convenience, without any regard to the proper inhabitants. Thus the Charaibes of Grenada happily remained in peaceful obscurity until the year 1650, when the avarice and ambition of a restless individual devoted them to destruction.

This person was Du Parquet, the French governor of Martinico, nephew and heir of Desnambuc, of whom memorable mention is made in the annals of St. Christopher. Notwithstanding that

that the French establishment in Martinico was itself of recent date, and that a great part of that island still remained uncultivated; and although another establishment was, at the same time, begun by the same nation, in the large and fertile island of Guadaloupe, yet such was the rapaciousness of this people, that upwards of two hundred hardy ruffians were easily collected by Du Parquet's encouragement for an attempt on Grenada and it is apparent from the nature and magnitude of the preparations, that it was considered as an enterprize of difficulty and danger.

The history of this expedition, which took place in June 1650, is related at large by Father du Tertre, whose account exhibits such a monstrous mixture of fanaticism and knavery in the conduct of its leaders, as cannot be contemplated without indignation and horror. Although it is evident that the French had not the smallest justifiable pretence for this invasion, yet we find the commanders administering the holy sacrament, in the most solemn manner, to all the soldiers on their embarkation; and again, on their landing, Du Parquet, causing a cross to be erected, compelled them to kneel down before it, and join

in devout prayer to Almighty God, for success to their enterprize.

This commander seems however to have had a few scruples of conscience concerning the justice of his proceedings; for, having been received and entertained with the utmost kindness and cordiality by the natives (contrary to his expectation, and perhaps to his wishes) he thought it necessary to affect some little regard to moderation, by pretending to open a treaty with the chief of the Charaibes for the purchase of the country. He gave the natives (observes Du Tertre) some knives and hatchets, and a large quantity of glass beads, besides two bottles of brandy for the chief himself; and thus (continues) was the island fairly ceded to the French nation by the natives themselves in lawful purchase. After this notable transaction, it is not wonderful that the French should consider the refusal of the poor savages to confirm the agreement, as contumacy and rebellion.

Du Parquet, having thus established a colony in Grenada, and built a fort for its protection, left the government of the island to a kinsman, named

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Le Compte, a man, according to Du Tertre, who possessed very singular talents for government; and was remarkable for clemency and humanity. We find this gentleman however, eight months afterwards, engaged in a most bloody war with the Charaibes; in the prosecution of which he authorized such acts of cruelty as furnish a portrait of him very different form that which the historian has exhibited. On receiving news of the revolt of the natives, Du Parquet sent a reinforcement of three hundred men from Martinico, with orders to extirpate the natives altogether; but Le Compte seems not to have wanted any incitement to acts of barbarity; for Du Tertre admits that he had already proceeded to murder, without mercy, every Charaibe that fell into his hands; not sparing even the women and children.

Of the manner in which this humane and accomplished commander, and his civilized followers, conducted hostilies against these miserable people, we may form an idea, from a circumstance that occurred in one of their expeditions, of which the reverend historian concludes his narrative as follows: „Forty of the Charaibes were massacred on the spot. About forty others, who had es-

caped the sword, ran towards a precipice, from whence they cast themselves headlong into the sea, and miserably perished. A beautiful young girl of twelve or thirteen years of age, who was taken alive, became the object of dispute between two of our officers, each of them claiming her as his lawful prize; a third coming up, put an end to the contest, by shooting the girl through the head. The place from which these barbarians threw themselves into the sea, has been called ever since le Morne des Sauteurs; (a) our people (having lost but one man in the expedition) proceeded in the next place to set fire to the cottages, and root up the provisions of the savages, and, having destroyed, or taken away, every thing belonging to them, returned in high spirits (bien joyeux).

By a series of such enormities, the whole race of Charaibes that possessed Grenada in 1650, was speedily exterminated, and the French, having in this manner butchered all the natives, proceeded, in the next place, to massacre each other.

The particulars of this civil contest may, without injury to my readers, be omitted. I shall

(a) Leapers Hill.

shall therefore only observe, that the supreme authority of Du Parquet and his lieutenant, was at length established in Grenada; but the expence which had attended the plantation from its outset, and the maintenance of the force which Du Parquet had been compelled to furnish, in support of his authority, had so greatly injured his fortune, as to induce him to look out for a purchaser of all his rights and possessions in this island and its dependencies. In 1656 such a purchaser offered in the Count de Cerillac, to whom the whole was conveyed for 30,000 crowns.

The conduct of Cerillac towards the inhabitants of his newly acquired dominion was highly injudicious and oppressive. He appointed a governor of so arrogant and rapacious a disposition, and supported him in his extortions with such obstinacy, as to compel the most respectable of the settlers to quit the country and seek for safety under a milder government. At length the people that remained, took the administration of justice into their own hands; by seizing on the person of the governor, and bringing him to a publick trial. The criminal was condemned to be hanged: but he blended noble birth, and de-

manded the honour of decollation. His request would have been granted, but unluckily an expert executioner in the business of beheading could not readily be found, the judges therefore compounded the matter with his excellency, by consenting that he should be shot; and he suffered in that mode with great composure.

Some years after this, Monsieur de Cerillac, the proprietor, receiving, as it may be supposed, but little profit from his capital, conveyed all his rights and interest in Grenada, etc. to the French West Indian company; whose charter being abolished in 1674, the island from thence forward became vested in the crown of France.

Under the various revolutions and calamities which had thus attended this unfortunate plantation, it may well be imagined that cultivation had made but little progress in it; but although order and submission were at length introduced by the establishment of the royal authority, various causes concurred to keep the colony in a state of poverty and depression for many years afterwards. Even so late as 1700, if Raynal has been rightly informed, the island contained no more than 251 whites

whites and 525 blacks; who were employed on 3 plantations of sugar, and 52 of indigo.

After the peace of Utrecht, the government of France began to turn its attention towards her West Indian possessions. Grenada however, for many years, partook less of its care than the rest. It had no constant correspondence with the mother-country: some oppressive regulations of the farmers-general ruined the cultivation of one of its staples, tobacco: and the planters had not the means of obtaining a supply of negroes from Africa, sufficient for the purpose of cultivating sugar to any extent. These inconveniencies led them into a smuggling intercourse with the Dutch: a resource which at length changed their circumstances for the better; encreased their numbers and occasioned a great part of the country to be settled, insomuch that when, in the year 1762, the fortune of war made the English masters of this and the rest of the French Charaibean islands, Grenada and the Grenadines are said to have yielded annually, in clayed and muscovado sugar, a quantity equal to about 11,000 hogsheads of muscovado of 15 cwt. each, and about 27,000 lbs. of indigo.

Grenada surrendered on capitulation in February 1762, and, with its dependencies, was finally ceded to Great Britain by the definitive treaty of peace at Paris on the 10th of February 1763; St. Lucea being restored at the same time to France. The chief stipulations in favour of the inhabitants, as well by the treaty, as by the articles of capitulation, were these; 1st. That as they would become, by their surrender, subjects of Great Britain, they should enjoy their properties and privileges, and pay taxes, in like manner as the rest of his Majesty's subjects of the other British Leeward islands. 2dly. With respect to religion, they were put on the same footing as the inhabitants of Canada, viz. liberty was given them to exercise it according to the riter of the Romish Church, as far as the laws of Great Britain permitted. 3dly. Such of the inhabitants of Grenada as chose to quit the island, should have liberty so to do, and eighteen months should be allowed them to dispose of their effects.

The island and its dependencies being thus become a British colony, one of the first measures of government was to issue a proclamation under the great seal, bearing date the 7th of October

tober 1763, wherein, amongst other things, it is declared „that all persons inhabiting in, or re„sorting to the island of Grenada, might confide „in the royal protection for the enjoyment of the „benefit of the laws of England, with the right „of appeal to the king in council, as fully as „the inhabitants of the other British colonies in „America under the king's immediate govern„ment." — It also sets forth, „that the king by letters patent under the great seal, had given express power and direction to the governor, as soon as the state and circumstances of the colony would admit thereof, with the advice and consent of the council, and the representatives of the people, to make, constitute, and ordain laws, statutes, and ordinances for the good government thereof, as near as may be agreeably to the laws of England, and under such regulations and restrictions as are used in the other British colonies."

THIS proclamation was followed by another, dated the 26th of March 1764, inviting purchasers upon certain terms and conditions.

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THE governor thus said to have been appointed, was general Melville, whose commission however did not bear date until the 9th of April 1764, and the assembly which he was directed to summon, met for the first time in 1765 previous to which, the British inhabitants were irresistible called to the discussion of a great constitutional question; of which it is proper, I should now give some account.

The question arose from the information, that the crown, conceiving itself entitled by the terms of the capitulation to the duty of 4½ per cent upon all produce exported from the newly ceded islands, as paid at Barbadoes, etc. had issued letters patent, bearing date the 20th July 1764, ordering and directing, by virtue of the prerogative royal, that from and after the 29th of September, then next ensuing, such duty or import in specie, should be levied in Grenada; in lieu of all customs and duties formerly paid to the French king.

We have seen, in the history of Barbadoes, in what manner the inhabitants of that island became subject to the duty in question; and to what pur-

purposes the money was expressly stipulated to be applied; but unjustifiable as were the means by which that imposition was originally established in Barbadoes, the grant was, apparently, the grant of the people themselves, by their representatives in their legislative capacity. Even Charles the IId. in whose reign the grant passed, though a rapacious and unprincipled monarch, did not openly claim the right of laying taxes by his own authority in a colony which had an assembly of its own, competent to that purpose. The king was ready enough to overawe, or to corrupt the members which composed that assembly; but he left them the form and semblance at least, of a free government.

In defence of the present measure, it was urged that Grenada being a conquered country, the king was invested with the power of putting the inhabitants under what form of government he thought best; that he might have granted them what terms of capitulation, and have concluded what articles of peace with them he saw fit; and further, that the assurance to the inhabitants of Grenada, in the articles of capitulation, that they should enjoy their properties and privileges in

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The noble and venerable judge who pronounced the opinion of the Court, rested the determination solely on the circumstance, that the proclamations of October 1763, and March 1764, were of prior date to the letters patent; observing, that the king had precluded himself from the exercise of legislative authority over Grenada, before the letters patent were issued. „Through inattention, he said, of the king's servants, in inverting the order in which the instruments should have passed, the last act was contradictory to, and a violation of the first, and on that account null and void." But, although the noble lord confined the mere legal questions to a narrrow compass, he judged it necessary, at the same time, to enter on a wide and extensive field of discussion in support of the regal authority over conquered countries; maintaining „that it is left to the king to grant or refuse a capitulation; — if he refuses, and puts the inhabitants to the sword, or other wise exterminates them, all the lands belong to himself. If he receives the inhabitants under his protection, and grants them their property, he has a power to fix such terms and conditions as he thinks proper. He may (said the noble judge) yield up the conquest, or retain it,

it, on what terms he pleases, and change part, or the whole, of the law, or political form of its government, as he sees best." In reply to an observation, that adjudged case, in point, had been adduced, the noble lord declared that this was not to be wondered at, „inasmuch as no question was ever started before but that the king has a right to a legislative authority over a conquered country;" and he quoted an opinion of the crown lawyers in 1722, in respect of Jamaica. The assembly of that island being refractory, it was referred to Sir Philip Yorke and Sir Clement Wearge to know „what could be done if the assembly should obstinately continue to withhold all the usual supplies." They reported, that „if Jamaica was still to be considered as a conquered island; the king had a right to levy taxes upon the inhabitants; but if it was to be considered in the same light as the other colonies, no tax could be imposed on the inhabitants, but by an assembly of the island, or by an act of parliament.

It is impossible, I think, not to perceive, through these, and other parts of the learned judge's argument, a certain degree of bias arising from the unhappy dissention which, about that

The noble and venerable judge ... Great ... ced the opinion of the Court, re... which, ... nation solely on the circumsta... guished ... clamations of October 1763, ... erful ad... of prior date to the letters ... cy of the ... the king had precluded ... chargeable ... of legislative authorit... to differ from ... letters patent were ... surely it will be ... he said, of the ... ne doctrine maintained ... order in which ... e test of those cases, which ... sed, the last ... imself adduced in its support. ... lation of the ... mination, plain argument and com... void." B... may supply the subtleties of legal refi... mere le... and the want of professional learning. ... judged ... on ... su...

The cases chiefly relied on by the learned judge, were those of Ireland, Wales, Berwick and New York; in all which places it was asserted that the king, after their conquest, had, of his own authority, exercised the powers of legislature, by introducing an alteration of their former laws, and establishing a new system of government over the inhabitants. „No man (observed his lordship, in the case of Ireland) ever said, that the change in the laws of that country was made by the parlia-

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be answered, which is, To what extent may the royal prerogative in such cases be exerted? Did the noble judge mean to assert, that conquest destroys all the rights of the conquered, and that the king, in changing their laws and form of government, has a right to prescribe to them, not merely the English constitution; — but any other system he thinks best? If such was the opinion, it may be affirmed that the cases which his lordship adduced in support of his argument, warrant no such conclusion.

The first case was that of Ireland. „The fact, says the noble lord, comes out clearly to be, that Ireland received the laws of England by

period, broke out into a civil war between Great Britain and her colonies; in the progress of which, it is believed, this noble person distinguished himself as an active partizan, and a powerful advocate for the unconditional supremacy of the mother-country. I might otherwise be chargeable with great arrogance in presuming to differ from such which of authority; but surely it will be permitted me to examine the doctrine maintained on this occasion, by the test of those cases, which the noble judge himself adduced in its support. In such an examination, plain argument and common sense may supply the subtleties of legal refinement, and the want of professional learning.

The cases chiefly relied on by the learned judge, were those of Ireland, Wales, Berwick and New York; in all which places it was asserted that the king, after their conquest, had, of his own authority, exercised the powers of legislature, by introducing an alteration of their former laws, and establishing a new system of government over the inhabitants. „No man (observed his lordship, in the case of Ireland) ever said, that the change in the laws of that country was made by the parlia-

liament of England: no man ever said the crown could not do it"

With the utmost deference, however, to the sentiments of this great and enlightened lawyer, I presume to think that the question was not simply, Whether the crown alone, or the parliament of England, had the right of exercising the authority contended for? — I will even admit that the interposition of parliament was unnecessary. Still however the main question remains to be answered, which is, To what extent may the royal prerogative in such cases be exerted? Did the noble judge mean to assert, that conquest destroys all the rights of the conquered, and that the king, in changing their laws and form of government, has a right to prescribe to them, not merely the English constitution; — but any other system he thinks best? If such was the opinion, it may be affirmed that the cases which his lordship adduced in support of his argument, warrant no such conclusion.

The first case was that of Ireland. „The fact, says the noble lord, comes out clearly to be, that Ireland received the laws of England by

the charters and commands of Henry II., King John, and Henry III.

Of Wales, the noble lord observes „that the statute of Wales (12 Edward I.) is certainly no more than regulations, made by the king in his council for the government of Wales, and that the king governed it as a conquest;" but let us hear on this subject the learned judge Blackstone. „This territory, observes Blackstone, being then entirely re-annexed (by a king of feodal resumption) to the dominion of the England, or, as the statute of Rutland expresses it, terra Walliae cum incolis suis, prius regi jure feodali subjecta, (of which homage was the sign) jam in proprietatis dominium totaliter et cum integritate conversa est, et coronae regni Angliae tanquam pars corporis ejusdem annexa et unita. But the finishing stroke to their independency, was given by the statute 27 Henry VIII. c. 26. which at the same time gave the utmost advancement to their civil prosperity, by admitting them to a thorough communication of laws with the subjects of England. Thus were this brave people gradually conquered into the enjoyment of true liberty; being in-

insensibly put upon the same footing, and made fellow citizens with their conquerors."

Another case was that of Berwick, which, observed the noble lord, after the conquest of it, was governed by charters from the crown, without the interposition of Parliament, till the reign of James I." The noble judge would have stated this case more fairly, had he said that Edward I. at the request of the inhabitants, confirmed to them the enjoyment of their ancient laws; but that „its constitution was put on an English footing, by a charter of King James. These are the very words of Blackstone.

The case next quoted by the learned judge was that of New York, which was conquered from the Duke in 1664, and, like Wales, remained in possession of most of its former inhabitants. King Charles II. (observes the noble judge) changed the form of their constitution and political government; by granting it to the duke of York, to hold of his crown under all the regulations contained in the letters patent." — So fair as true; but what followed? This duke of York (afterwards James II.) was a man whose

principles of government were in the highest degree repugnant and inimical to those of the English constitution. Accordingly he attempted at first to introduce into the newly acquired country, a system little consonant to British freedom; but he was disappointed and defeated. He was compelled much against his inclination, to allow the people to choose deputies to represent them in the legislature; and these deputies actually voted „that all the ordinances which had been made by the governor and council, before the people were admitted to a share in the legislature, were invalid, because they were passed in a manner repugnant to the constitution of England."

From this recital, it is, I think, evident that the noble and learned judge mistook the gist of the question; or rather confounded together two things which are totally distinct and repugnant in their nature; for he appears to have considered the prerogative in the king, of extending to his newly acquired subjects, the benefits of the English constitution, as equivalent to the right of ruling them by whatever constitution or system of government he pleases; or, by none at all.

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It would seem then that, if the cases which have been adduced prove any thing, they prove that the crown neither has prescribed, nor could prescribe, any form of government incompatible with the principles of the British constitution, to any colony or territory whatever, whether acquired by conquest or settlement; — and good authorities are not wanting in support of this doctrine. „The king of Great Britain (says an excellent writer (c)) although at the head of a free state, may, in his own right, hold other states, under a form of government that is not free; as he does, for instance, the states of the electorate of Hanover. He may too even as king of Great Britain, by virtue of his prerogative and as generalissimo of the empire, hold a conquered state (for the time being) under a form of government that is not free; that is, under military law: but, in the instant that such conquered state is, by treaty of peace, or otherwise, ceded to the crown of Great Britain, in that instant it imbibes the spirit of the constitution, it is naturalized; it is assimilated to the government, it is governable and to be governed by, and under all those powers with which the governing power of king, lords

(c) Mr. Estwick.

and commons is invested by the constitution; but it is not governable, neither is to be governed, by any powers which the governing power of king, lords and commons does not possess from the constitution: as for example, it cannot be governed on the principles of slavery; because the governing power of king, lords and commons is appointed by the constitution to govern on the principles of liberty." Surely it is a proposition absurd and monstrous on the very face of it, to say that a limited monarch in a free state, may govern any part of the dominions of such a state in an arbitrary and tyrannical manner. A body of subjects so governed, would, if sufficiently numerous, be fit instruments to enslave the rest!

The intelligent reader will admit the vast importance of this question, both to the present age and to posterity; and perceive how greatly the dearest interests of men, who, in the contingencies of war, shall hereafter fall under the British dominion, may possible be concerned in its discussion. To such readers no apology will be necessary, for the detail which I have thought it my duty to give on a subject of such constitutional

tional magnitude. — I now return to transactions with the colony.

It has been stated that the first assembly met in 1765. At that time none of the French Roman catholik inhabitants claimed a right, or even expressed a desire, of becoming members, either of the council or assembly: but in 1768, the governor received instructions from the crown, to admit two of them into the council, and to declare others to be eligible into the assembly, on taking the oaths of allegiance and supremacy. The governor was directed also to include the names of certain persons of this description, in the commission of the peace.

These instructions, and the measures which were taken in consequence thereof, gave rise to violent commotions and party divisions in the colony, which, being imbittered by religious controversy, continue to divide the inhabitants to the present hour. It were highly unbecoming in me (a stranger to the island) to flatter the passions of one party or the other; and I should readily consign all the circumstances to oblivion, but that it is my duty as an historian, to state without

prejudice such particulars as may, in their consequences, affect the general welfare of the colony, that the errors of one age may serve as a lesson to the next.

The opposition that was given by the British inhabitants to the appointment of any of the Roman catholik capitulants to seats in the legislature, arose, I believe, originally from an idea that the royal instructions in this case were indirect violation of the test act of Charles II. which requires „that all persons enjoying any place of trust or profit shall, in addition to the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, subscribe a declaration against the doctrine of transubstantiation in the sacrament of the Lord's supper." By the king's instructions, above cited, his Roman catholik subjects of Grenada were declared eligible without subscribing to this declaration.

Liberal and enlightened minds at this day are not easily reconciled to the doctrine, that an adherence to mere speculative opinions in matters of faith, ought to drive any loyal subject from the service of his country, or deprive a man (otherwise entitled) of the enjoyment of those honours and

and distinctions, the distribution of which the wisdom of the laws has assigned to the sovereign. Much less will it be thought that such a man is unworthy of that confidence which his neighbours and fellow citizens, who are best acquainted with his principles and virtues, and are themselves of a different persuasion, shall think fit to repose in him. At the same time, it must be acknowledged, that the recent and then depending claim in the crown, to lay taxes on Grenada by its own authority, gave the inhabitants just cause of apprehension, that the royal instructions in the present case were founded, in like manner, on a pretension to legislative authority, subversive of their own colonial assembly.

On the other hand, it was alledged that the test act was never meant to extend to the British plantations; that it was confined, both in its letter and spirit, to the kingdom of England and the town of Berwick; and though it were true that it is the practice of the courts of Grenada to adopt both the common and statute law of England, it was contended nevertheless, that the adoption could extend only to such of the English statutes as were applicable to the peculiar situation

tion of the colony. It was urged, that the act in question originated in an age of religious frenzy and fanatick violence. The authority of history was adduced to prove that it was particularly promoted by a worthless individual, from animosity to the Duke of York, who was obliged, in consequence of it, to resign the great office of Lord High Admiral. A law thus founded and supported, instead of being considered as suited to the circumstances of a new and infant colony, ought, it was said, to be expunged from the English statute book.

What influence these, or other considerations, had on the British ministry, I presume not to say. It is certain that the king refused to revoke his instructions; in consequence whereof the most zealous of the protestant members of the assembly declining to attend, it was seldom that a house could be formed. Publick affairs soon fell into the utmost confusion, and in this state of faction and perplexity, the island continued, until its re-capture by the French in 1779.

On this occasion, charges were brought against the French inhabitants which I will not repeat, be-

because I have no other evidence to support them than the mutual reproaches, and reciprocal accusations of the parties. The complaints indeed which were loudly made on the part of the French, of an usurpation of their dearest rights by the prevailing faction, seemed to imply that they relied rather on justification than denial.

The French ministry however required no other encouragement for attacking this island than the defenceless state in which all the British settlements in the West Indies were at that juncture notoriously left. The hopeless and destructive war in North America had drawn to its vortex all the powers, resources, and exertions of Great Britain. Already had Dominica and St. Vincent become a sacrifice to that unfortunate contest; when it fell to the lot of Grenada to experience her share of the general misfortune.

On the 2d of July 1779, a French armament, consisting of a fleet of 25 ships of the line, 10 frigates, and 5000 troops, under the command of the Count D'Estaing, appeared off the harbour and town of St. George; the whole force of the island was composed of 90 men of the 48th regiment,

ment, 500 militia of the island, and 150 seamen from the merchant ships; and its fortifications consisted chiefly of an entrenchment, which had been hastily thrown up round the summit of the Hospital-hill. This entrenchment the Count D'Estaing invested the next day, at the head of 3000 of his best forces, which he led up in three columns, and after a hard conflict and the loss of 300 men, carried the lines. Never did so small a body of men make a nobler defence against such inequality of numbers. The governor (Lord Macartney) and the remains of his little garrison, immediately retired into the old fort, at the mouth of the harbour; which however was wholly untenable, being commanded by the Hospital-hill battery, the guns of which having been most unfortunately left unspiked, were now turned against them. At day-break, the French opened a battery of two twenty-four pounders against the walls of the old fort. In this situation, the governor and inhabitants had no resource but in the hopes of obtaining favourable terms of capitulation; and herein they were disappointed. Their proposals were scornfully rejected, and such hard and extraordinary terms offered and insisted on by Count D'Estaing, as left

left them no alternative but the sacrifice of their honour, or an unconditional surrender. They embraced the latter; and it must be acknowledged, that the protection which was afforded to the helpless inhabitants of the town, and their property, not only while the treaty was depending, but also after the surrender of the island at discretion, reflected the highest lustre on the discipline, as well as humanity of the conquerors. Protection and safe-guards were granted on every application, and thus a town was saved from plunder, which by the strict rules of war might have been given up to an exasperated soldiery.

It is to be lamented that the subsequent conduct of the French government of Grenada towards its new subjects, was not quite so generous. By an ordinance of the Count de Durat, the new governor, they were enjoined, under the penalty of military execution and confiscation of property, from the payment, directly or indirectly, of all debts due by them to British subjects, residing in any part of the British dominions; and by another ordinance, the prohibition was extended to such debts owing to the subjects of the united provinces of Holland, as

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were guarantied by any of the subjects of Great Britain, The Count D'Estaing had inserted clauses to the same effect, in the form of capitulation, which he had tendered to the garrison, and it was those prohibitions that induced the British inhabitants with an honest indignation, to risque the consequence of an unconditional surrender, rather than submit to them. With the virtue and integrity that it is to be hoped will for ever distinguish the British character, they considered no sacrifice so great as the violation of that confidence, which had been reposed in them by their friends and creditors in Europe. But the ordinances went still further. By the regulations which they contained, it was enacted that all the estates belonging to English absentees, should be put into the hands of certain persons to nominated by the governor, called conservators; and the produce be paid into the publick treasury. Thus was plunder sanctioned by authority; and the absent proprietors were not the only victims. The shameful facility with which every French claimant was put into possession of estates to which the slightest pretension was set up, gave the resident planter reason to apprehend, that the only indulgence they were to expect, was that which

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Polipsemus promised Ulysses, of being devoured the last.

Most of these injurious proceedings, and various acts of personal oppression, inflicted on the conquered inhabitants of Grenada, were, by them, imputed to the too great influence with the governor of their late fellow subjects and neighbours, the French planters; and it is much easier to account for, than to justify their conduct. Let it be remembered, however, to the honour of the French nation, that these nefarious proceedings were no sooner made known to the court of France, than they were disapproved and reprobated. The appointment of conservators was abolished, and restoration ordered to be made of the estates of absent proprietors. Redress was likewise very generally given, by appeals in the last resort, to such of the resident planters as had been illegally deprived of their possessions. But it was not long before the island itself reverted to the British dominion.

Grenada and the Grenadines were restored to Great Britain, with all the other captured islands in the West Indies (Tobago excepted) by the ge-

neral pacification, which took place in January 1783, a pacification upon which, whatever may be its general merits, it is impossible but that the English sugar planters (except perhaps those of the ceded island) must reflect with grateful satisfaction. It might indeed have been wished, by those who have at heart the present repose and future prosperity of mankind, that some salutary regulations had been framed, at the same time, for preventing the revival of those unhappy national animosities among the white inhabitants of Grenada, of which I have so largely spoken, and which I am sorry to be informed, were renewed on the restoration of the island with additional force and aggravated violence. It is not my intention however to enter into any further detail on the subject. As a friend to the interests of humanity, independent of religious opinions, and locality of birth, I shall rejoice if means can be found to restore to this little community that peace, confidence and unanimity, without which its inhabitants must be a ruined people, and a prey to the first invader.

Having thus, as I conceive, sufficiently treated of the historical and political concerns of thi-

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valuable colony, I shall conclude with a short display of its present state (1791), in respect of *soil*, population, productions and exports; premising, that many of those little islands which are called the Grenadines, no longer appertain to the government of Grenada. By an arrangement of the British administration, which has taken effect since the peace, a line of division passes in an east and west direction, between Cariacou and Union Island. The former of these, and some smaller islands south of it, are all that are now comprized in the Grenada government; Union island, with all the little islands adjoining, to the north, being annexed to the government of St. Vincent.

Grenada is computed to be about twenty four miles in length and twelve miles in its greatest breadth, and contains about 80,000 acres of land; of which although no less than 72,141 acres paid taxes in 1776, and may therefore be supposed fit for cultivation, yet the quantity actually cultivated has never exceeded 50,000 acres. The face of the country is mountainous, but not inaccessible in any part, and it abounds with springs and rivulets. To the north and the east, the soil

is a brick mould; the same or nearly the same, at that of which mention has been made in the history of Jamaica. On the west side, it is a rich blak mould on a substratum of yellow clay. To the south, the land in general is poor; and of a reddish hue, and the same extends over a considerable part of the interior country. On the whole, however, Grenada appears to be fertile in a high degree, and by the variety, as well as excellence, of its returns, seems adapted to every tropical production. The exports of the year 1776, from Grenada and its dependencies, were 14,012,157 lbs. of muscovado, and 9,273,607 lbs. of clayed sugar; 818,700 gallons of rum; 1,827,166 lbs. of coffee; 457,719 lbs. of cacao; 91,943 lbs. of cotton; 27,638 lbs. of indigo, and some smaller articles; the whole of which, on a moderate computation, could not be worth less, at the ports of shipping, than L. 600,000 sterling, excluding freight, duties, insurance and other charges. It deserves to be remembered too, that the sugar was the produce of 106 plantations only, and that they were worked by 18,293 negroes, which was therefore, rather more than one hogshead of muscovado sugar, of 16 cwt. from the labour of each negro, old and young, employed in the cultivation

tion of that commodity; a prodigious return, equalled, I believe, by no other British island in the West Indies, St. Christopher's excepted. — The exports of 1787 will be given hereafter: they will be found, except in one or two articles, to fall greatly short of those of 1776; a circumstance for which I know not wholly how to account (*d*).

 This

(*d*) This circumstance is the more surprising as the sugar plantations in Grenada, for some years previous to the hurricane in 1780 suffered greatly by the ravages of the sugar, or carnivorous ant. Of this wonderful insect a curious account was transmitted to the Royal Society of London, an abridgment of which the reader will find in an appendix to this chapter. I conceive however (notwithstanding what is asserted to the contrary in that account) that this species of ant, is common to all the islands in the West Indies, and has been known in them, in a greater or less degree, from the earliest times. It is the formica omnivora of Linnaeus, and is well described by Sloane as the formica fusca minima, antennis longissimis (vide note in p. 168 of this vol.). Its trival name in Jamaica, is the Raffles ant, from one Thomas Raffles, who is charged with

This island is divided into six parishes, St. George, St. David, St. Andrew, St. Patrick, St. Mark and St. John; and its chief dependency, Cariacou, forms a seventh parish. It is only since the restoration of Grenada to Great Britain by the peace of 1783, that an island law has been obtained for the establishment of a protestant clergy.

This act passed in 1784, and provides stipends of L. 330 currency, and L. 60 for house-rent per annum, for five clergymen, viz. one for the town and parish of St. George, three for the other five out-parishes of Grenada, and one for Cariacou. Besides these stipends, there are valuable glebe lands, which had been appropriated to the support of the Roman catholick clergy, whilst that was the established religion of Grenada. These lands, according to an opinion of the attorney and solicitor-general of England (to whom a question on this point was referred by the

with having imported them from the Havanna about the year 1762. They do no injury to the sugar canes in Jamaica; probably because their numbers are few from what causes they encreased so prodigiously in Grenada, no satisfactory account has I believe been given.

the crown) became vested in his majesty as publick lands, on the restoration of the island to the British government and I believe have since been applied by the colonial legislature, with the consent of the crown, support of the protestant church, with some allowance thereout (to what amount I am not informed) for the benefit of the tolerated Romish clergy of the remaining French inhabitants.

The capital of Grenada, by an ordinance of governor Melville, soon after the cession of the country to Great Britain by the peace of Paris, is called St. George. By this ordinance, English names were given to the several towns and parishes, and their French names forbidden to be thereafter used in any publick acts. The French name of the capital was Fort Royal. It is situated in a spacious bay, on the west or lee-side of the island, not far from the south end, and possesses one of the safest and most commodious harbours for shipping in the English West Indies, which has been lately fortified at a very great expence (*e*).

(*e*) The town of Saint George is built chiefly of brick, and makes a handsome appearance. It is divided by a

The other towns in Grenada, are, properly speaking, inconsiderable villages or hamlets, which are generally situated at the bays or shipping places in the several out-parishes. The parish town of Cariacou is called Hillsborough.

Grenada has two ports of entry, with separate establishments, and distinct revenue officers, independent of each other, viz. one at St. George, the capital, and one at Grenville-bay, a town and harbour on the east or windward side of the island. The former, by the 27 Geo. III. c. 27. is made a free port.

Whether

a ridge; which running into the sea forms on one side the carenage, on the other the bay, thus there is the Bay-town, which boasts a handsome square and market-place, and the Carenage town, wherein the principal merchants reside, the ships lying land-locked, and in deep water close to the wharfs. On the ridge between the two towns stands the church, and on the promontory above it is a large old fort, which was probably constructed by the first French inhabitants. It is built of stone, and is large enough to accommodate an entire regiment.

Whether it be owing to the events of war, to domestick dissentions, or to calamities inflicted by the hand of Divine Providence, I know not, but it appears that the white population of Grenada and the Grenadines has decreased considerably since these islands first came into possession of the English. The number of white inhabitants, in the year 1771, was known to be somewhat more than sixteen hundred; in 1777 they had decreased to thirteen hundred; and at this time they are supposed not to exceed one thousand two hundred, of which about twothirds are men able to bear arms, and incorporated into five regiments of militia, including a company of free black or mulattoes, attached to each. There are likewise about 500 regular troops from Great Britain, which are supported on the British establishment (*f*).

(*f*) Besides the regular troops which are sent from Great Britain for the protection of Grenada, there are in its garrison three companies of king's negroes, which came from America, where they served in three capacities, as pioneers, artificers, and

The negro slaves have also decreased. By the last returns preceding the capture of the island in 1779, they were stated at 35,000, of which 5,000 were in Cariacou, and the smaller islands. In 1785 they amounted to no more than 23,926 in the whole. The decrease was owing partly to the want of any regular supply during the French government, and partly to the numbers carried from the island by the French inhabitants, both before and after the peace. It is also to be observed, that of the African cargoes sold at Grenada, some part (perhaps a fourth or fifth) are exported to the neighbouring French and Spanish colonies.

The free people of colour amounted in 1787, to 1,115. To prevent the too great increase of this mixed race, every manumission is, by an act of this island, charged with a fine of one hundred pounds currency, payable into the publick treasury. But this law has neither operated as

and light dragoons. In Grenada they form a company of each, and are commanded by a lieutenant of the regulars, having captain's rank.

as a productive fund, nor as a prohibition; for it is usually evaded by executing and recording acts of manumission in some other island or government where there is no such law. The evidence of all coloured people, of free condition, is received in the courts of this island, on their producing sufficient proof of their freedom; and such free people are tried on criminal charges in the same manner as the whites. They are also allowed to possess and enjoy lands and tenements to any amount, provided they are native-born subjects or capitulants, and not aliens.

The governor, by virtue of his office, is chancellor, ordinary and vice-admiral, and presides solely in the courts of chancery and ordinary, as in Jamaica. His salary is L. 3,200 currency per annum (*g*), which is raised by a poll-tax on all slaves; and it is the practice in Grenada to pass a salary bill on the arrival of every

(*g*) The currency of Grenada, or rate of exchange, is commonly 65 per cent worse than sterling.

every new governor, to continue during
government. In all cases of absence bey
twelve months, the salary ceases and de
mines.

The council of Grenada consists of tw
members; and the assembly of twenty-six.
powers, privileges and functions of both th
branches of the legislature, are the same,
exercised precisely in the same manner, as th
of the council and assembly in Jamaica. A fr
hold, or life estate, of fifty acres, is a qualifi
tion for a representative for a parish, and a fre
hold, or life estate, in fifty pounds houserent
St. George, qualifies a representative for t
town. An estate of ten acers in fee, or f
life, or a rent of ten pounts in any of the ou
towns, gives a vote for the representatives
each parish respectively; and a rent of twent
pounds per annum, issuing out of any freehol
or life estate in the town of St. George, gives
vote for a representative for the town.

The law courts in Grenada, besides those chancery and ordinary, are, first, the Court and sessions of the peace held twice a year, in March and September. In this court the person named in the commission of the e presides, who is usually the president or r in council.

2dly. The court of common pleas. The rt consists of one chief and four assistant ices, whose commissions are during pleasure. chief justice is usually appointed in Eng- d, a professional man, and receives a salary L. 600 per annum. The four assistant justi- are usually appointed by the governor from ong the gentlemen of the island, and act with- t salary.

3dly. The court of exchequer. The bar- in this court are commissioned in like man- as in the court of common pleas. But this rt is lately grown into disuse.

4thly

4thly. The court of admiralty, for trial of all prize causes of capture from enemies in war, and of revenue seizures in peace or war. There is one juge of admiralty and one surrogate.

Lastly, The governor and council compose a court of error, as in Jamaica, for trying all appeals of error from the court of common pleas.

Although there is no law of Grenada declaring an adoption of the laws of England, yet it has been always the practice of the courts, to consider both the common and statute law of England to extend to Grenada in all applicable cases, not otherwise provided for by particular laws of the island. So in like manner the practice of the courts in Westminster-Hall, and authentik reports of adjudged cases there, are resorted to, when precedents and authorities are wanting in the island.

In the case of its slave laws, it may be said with truth and justice, that the assembly of this island have shewn a liberality of sentiment which re-

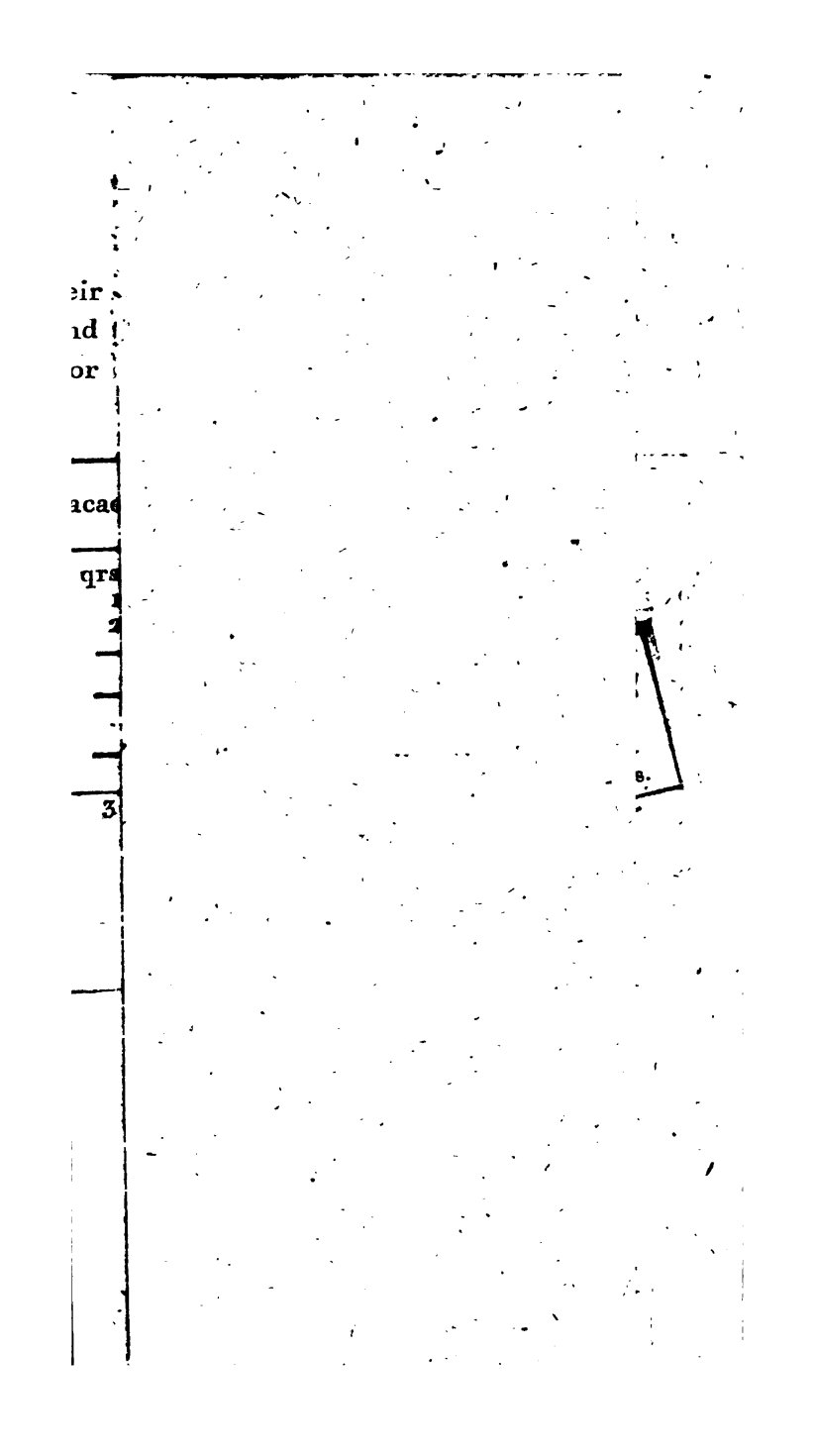
reflects the highest honour on their characters, both as legislators and christians.

I have now furnished the reader with all the information I have collected, concerning the past history and present state of the island of Grenada (*b*), and if it shall be thought deficient or uninstructive, the fault is not in the want of materials, but in the workman. Something however remains to be observed concerning such of the Grenadines as are dependent on the Grenada government, the chief of which are Cariacou and Isle Ronde. The former contains 6,913 acres of land, and in general it is fertile and well cultivated; producing in seasonable years a million of pounds of cotton for exportation, besides corn, yams, potatoes, and plantains sufficient for the maintenance of its negroes. The cultivation of sugar has been found less successful in this island than cotton, though it still continues to be made on two plantations. Isle Ronde contains about 500

(*b*) This was written in 1791: since that time Grenada has sustained a melancholy reverse of fortune, some particulars of which will be related in a subsequent volume.

500 acres of excellent land, which are wh
applied to pasturage, and the cultivation of
ton. It is situated about midway between Ca
cou and the north end of Grenada, about
leagues from each.

I shall close my account of this colony,
of Barbadoes, with an authentick return by
spector General of Great Britain, of the exp
from Grenada and its dependencies, for the
1787; containing also an estimate of the a
value of the several articles at the British
ket:



Gottenburgh.

Here is carried on the largest herring fishery in the world. Two to 4000 barrels caught in one draught of the seine, a net about 12 fathoms deep, and 150 long, worked by 16 men, and hove in by winches. Net costs 60 to 70 l. sterling.

Boats carrying 1 to 200 barrels, with two or three men, and which cost 50 to 100 l. transport the fish, when cured, along the coast. The Fishery commences the first November, and continues till the frost stops it. Neither bounty nor drawback. Salt pays a duty of 15 Sh. per ton. One barrel of salt cures 3 ½ of herrings. The cost of salt is 3 l. per ton, and of barrels 2 Sh. each. Herrings for home consumption pay a duty of 9 d. per barrel. Annual quantity salted or pickled about 300,000 barrels; one fourth consumed at home, the rest in the Baltic, Ireland, and the West Indies, Price about 8 Sh. 6 d. per barrel. Fifty thousand casks of oil, of 8000 tons, are yearly extracted from about a million of barrels of fish, two gallons to a barrel. Oil worth from 16 l. to 23 l. per ton; pays a duty of 15 Sh. for home, and 20 S. per ton for export.

Mer-

Merchants from Gottenburgh offer to contract for millions of barrels, if wanted, for the West Indies. The annual consumption of the British islands computed to be about 250,000 barrels; four times greater than our average export to them.

Isle of Man.

Three hundred and forty-three boats have of late years paid custom, but some evade: seven or eight men in a boat; and 40 to 50 fishing smacks buy and cure and carry the fish away, as well as great quantities in bulk, to a market, chiefly to Liverpool. These smacks carry five men each, and many others attend to buy. The boats are from 12 to 22 tons. Fishery begins at Midsummer, and ends in October. Export for four years previous to 1791, 7,390 barrels of white or pickled herrings to Great Britain, and 12,272 barrels of red herrings; and 27,525 red herrings to the Mediteraneau. Bounty 1 S.h per barrel for home, and for export, 2 Sh. 8 d. white, and 1 S. 9 d. red. Cured with Liverpool salt. Fishermen payed by shares. Value of smacks from 100 l. to 500 l. of boats, 80 to 100 gs.

This fishery is now in a declining state, from unsuccessful seasons and because of the war, which prevents their export to the Streights.

Ireland.

Bounty 10 Sh. per ton for 80 tons, and 4 Sh. per barrel for white herrings packed, and 1 Sh. 3 d. in bulk. Premiums, 80 guineas for the first, 60 guineas for second, 40 for third, and 20 guineas for fourth successful vessel; besides other encouragements from towns, etc. In 1793 bounty was received by 42 vessels, of 2848 tons and 543 men, and on 16,099 barrels; some quantity of fish caught besides. The fishery is carried on along shore; each vessel has two boats, with nets, to supply her cargo. Two seasons, 25 th. October, for three months; and also 1 st. of March. In 1785, when bounty was granted upon tonnage only, without any specific obligations as to the curing of fish, etc. export was 35,414 barrels. In 1794, only 1390 barrels. Annual import of Swedish herrings 23,693 barrels, paying a duty of 9 d. per barrel.

Liverpool.

Employed, in 1797, 27 sail of fishing smacks in the Autumn, and 61 in the Winter fisheries,

to

to buy and not to catch herrings, chiefly from the boats on the N. W. coast of Scotland, and in the Firth of Forth, Wales, and Isle of Man. These smacks are of 50 or 60 tons, worth 500 and 600 l. and carry nine men. Export increased, from 1794, only 7410 barrels, to 27,387 barrels, in 1797, for the West Indies chiefly, the increase owing to our conquests of the French West India islands.

Scotland.

Three busses employed in the N. W. Fisheries for three months carrying 12 to 15 men, and three boats, with nets to fish in the locks, to compleat the cargo of the buss, which only a floating storehouse, cost 800 l. with nets and outsit. Bounties allowed 20 Sh. per ton, and 1 Sh. per barrel, to the amount of 21 ½ barrels per ton, and 1 Sh. per barrel for the remainder. These busses are chiefly from Greenock; but there are some from the remotest Highlands and in the Orkneys. The society, instituted a few years since, for promoting the Scotch Fishery in the Highlands, have expended near 40,000 l. in this object, and established three or four new settlements. In 1753, when the bounty was first given, there were only eight

vessels, which caught 519 barrels. In 1796, an increase of 292 vessels, of 14,218 tons, 3,528 men, and 53,875 barrels of herrings.

Barrels

In 1793 — 316 vessels produced 67,203.
In 1794 — 315 — — only 33,485.

In 1795, 30,000 barrels were exported to the West Indies, and 37,000 barrels to Ireland.

The Fishery in the Firth of Forth was very inconsiderable till 1794, since which the busses flocking here, and boats from all the eastern coast of Scotland, the cath in 1796 was 132,000 barrels by the boat fishery. It appears, that on a medium of the last three years, ending 5 th. of January, 1798, there were annually cleared out from all the parts of Scotland, without the tonnage-bounty, 736 vessels or boats, measuring 23,348 tons manned with 2366 men, laden with 195,149 bushels of salt, and 45,755 barrels, besides a great many empty barrels, etc. That of these 557. were either decked or of 15 tons and upwards, and 147 carried nets. One hundred and fifty thousand barrels may be computed to be the annual produce of the boat fishery, beside fresh fish sold. Encouragements, are the

the allowance to fishcurers to take salt duty free; a bounty of 25 per barrel in the taking of herrings by boats not belonging to busses; and a bounty of 2 Sh. 8 d. for the export of white herrings. Wages on board the busses: master 50 l. mate 45 l. Cooper 45 l, three boatmen 38 l. and three skunkmen 30 l. three new hands 25 l. and a boy 15 to 19 S. per month; beside premiums, amounting to 28 l. for refuse, and 14 l. for half cargo. Price of herrings from 20 to 25 Sh. per barrel. One and a half bushel, or 84 lb. salt required for each barrel packed for the West Indies; Portugal salt 4 l. per ton; barrels cost from 4 to 5 Sh. each. Season for fishing, November and December.

Yarmouth has now nothing to do with the white herring fishery, having made the experiment and failed: but with Lowe stoff, considered as the principal place for red-herrings in the world; 30 or 40 years ago, the export has amounted to 70,000 barrels, chiefly up the streights; and 3 or 400 vessels have been employed. In 1793, about 10,000 barrels might be exported; none of signification since. In 1798, only about 34 boats, and 30 cobles, from the coast of

Yorkshire employed; the whole catch about 12,000 barrels for home consumption: price of 1 st. sort, 45 Sh., 2 d. sort, 30 Sh. and 3 d. sort, 20 Sh. per barrel. This is the only deep sea fishery in the kingdom, and which is therefore the best nursery for seamen. The boats carry 11 and 12 men, and are worth, with their appartenances, 1000 l. Their fishery is throughout the stormy months of October and November, from Yarmouth to the Channel. Bounty 20 Sh. per ton, and 1 Sh. per barrel; for export 1 Sh. 9 d. Dover and Hastings, etc. employ about 20 boats: smaller herrings reded for the home consumption; but never for export. The war is a deadly blow to this fishery, which is only upheld by the bounty.

Yarmouth, Ian. 11, 1799.

II.

A Tour through a part of New-England.

Having previously visited Philadelphia and New York, I sailed, in te autumn of 1795, from the latter place in a packed sloop for Newport,

on

on my way to Boston, the capital of New England. There is a regular stage which daily passes between these places, (distant about 270 miles); but as the roads are but indifferent for carriage conveyance, and the coach was, strictly speaking, a heavy caravan, carrying eleven passengers besides the driver, I preferred the vessel as the least evil of the two, although not at all partial to the watery element. I soon found I had chosen right, at least if I might judge from the number of passengers bound on the same expedition. This decided preference, however, was not unattended with its disadvantages, as the captains of packets, in this respect much like the drivers of short stages never balance the ease and comfortable accommodation of their passengers with their fares; so it proved at night; for what wiht the few births, and the number of persons to occupy them, I had no other resource than to wrap myself in my great-coat, and sleep as well as I could on a sailor's chest.

On our way, and arrived within sight of New York, I was shewn the remains of the Jersey, an English 64 gun man of war, converted during the American troubles into a prison-ship:

she floated immediately opposite us, and the shore was covered with a Number of boney fragments, reliques of the many victims who had from thence been daily conveyed and deposited there. The Americans relate divers stories of unusual severity and illtreatment experienced at that time by the prisoners on board; but which I hope, for the sake of humanity, and for the honour of my countrymen, are not the exact truth. In sailing down about ten miles farther, along the eastriver, we passed a tremendous current and whirlpool, called Hell-gate: to get through this dreadful *Euripus* in safety, it is necessary for all vessels excepting coasters, to have a regular pilot. The currents here are so rapid and narrow, and are so perplexed with contrary ones, and jutting rocks on all sides obstructing them, that it requires the nicest care and circumspection of the most skilful pilot. During the minute we were rapidly whirled through by the impetuous current, the foaming noise on every side, contrasted by the still anxiety of the passengers, contributed not a little to increase its natural horrors. The captain though for many years habituated to steering through this passage, declared it always had the effect to produce on

him

him a profuse perspiration; and related a circumstance of piloting a West Indiaman from New York up the Sound, when the owner, whose whole property was on board the vessel, and who had entertained great apprehensions of this place, (something like Ulysses in fabulous history), actually locked up his (the pilot's) wife, who was on board, in the cabin, during the time the vessel was passing through, lest by any conversation she might estrange and withdraw her husband's attention! Indeed, this place, which I viewed at a subsequent period from the adjoining shore, is well deserving the inspection of the curious: it is supposed to have taken its rise from immense rocks, which, on some earthquake or other unknown event, have sunk considerably, and turned the course of the waters from their accustomed channel.

The Americans have long obtained credit for building swift-sailing vessels, and very justly, in my opinion; for in the space of about eighteen hours, we were safely landed at Newport, wich is 200 miles distant from the place of our departure; having sailed at the rate of above eleven miles an hour. This town (Newport) is called

called the capital of Rhode Island; and during the late war, on account of its commodious and beautiful harbour, it was in a very florishing state, it has since, however, gradually declined; whilst the town of providence in the same state, thirty miles distant on the road to Boston, has increased in a proportion equally rapid. This place, though not so eligible situated as the former, in a commercial point of view, far surpasses it in extent and opulence; wich may be attributed to the spirit of enterprise apparently pervading the whole body of its inhabitants, and for which it is not a little indebted to that truly indefatigable and worthy citizen, Mr. Iohn Brown. At the entrance of the town of Providence a new bridge has been erected, of á light and very elegant structure. The church is a very handsome modern edifice, and the inns have accommodation for travellers, superior to any I have ever seen in the southern districts of America. This state, although the smallest in the union, apparently possesses the most considerable advantages; the farms here are better cultivated, and the lands are more productive, than any I have seen in other parts. It is likewise admirably situated for commerce, lying contiguous to the Atlantic Ocean, and at a con-

ve-

venient distance between the great capitals New-York, and Boston: the climate also is generally allowed to be the mildest, and the peasantry here are accounted the handsomest.

From Providence to Boston the distance is 45 miles. As the river is not navigable farther, I proceeded to the latter place in the stage, and was agreeably surprised to find this conveyance a comfortable close coach, instead of the open jumbling caravans, to which I had been accustomed in the Pensylvania and New York States. I observed also with pleasure the increased expedition in travelling, and the attention and excellent accommodations on the road, a satisfaction which was enhanced by having lost sight of the people of colour.

On my entering in Boston, the activity and alacrity visible in the domestics, with the general bustle, and concern for business which characterises the inhabitants, had well nighled me to mistake the metropolis of New England, for some great town of its mother country. It is a prevailing custom throughout the United States, on account of the scarcity of convenient hotels, and coffee-

coffee-houses, for strangers to be accommodated with board and lodging in private families, by which means, a number of widows, with small incomes, who generall syuperintend these concerns, are enabled to maintain their families with a degree of credit and decent respectability. This method is not without its advantages, as it tends to familiarize, by associating together, travellers of different countries, from whose conversation much entertainment and mental instruction is derived and interhanged; it may also be a mean of preventing many excesses to which men are often addicted, in the usual taverns, such for instance as those in Great Britain. The tables, at the above houses, are well and plentifully served, (rather indeed profusely) as are those of most private families; I cannot account for this from any particular cheapness of provisions, as whatever might have been the case formerly, at present they are fully adequate to the prices in England.

It is astonishing to think of the rapid advance to which every necessary of life has arisen, in consequence of the war now raging in Europe. At the commencement of 1793, five dollars was the

the general price per week, for board and lodging, but in the short space of three years, it has increased to more than eight dollars per week; house rent rises in yet greater proportion, and if this disastrous war should continue for any length of time, what with the influx of emigrants, and the necessary supply of provisions exported to the West India Islands, the above articles will, in all probability, become still dearer. I have remarked not with out a degree of surprize, the comeliness and apparent health of the American men, particularly in this part, the New England states, which is difficult to be accounted for, considering the great quantity of animal food they eat, and the new made spirit or rum they usually drink. An American breakfast is even proverbial for its variety: I seldom sat down to this meal, but in addition to the usual fare of tea and coffee, fish, beefsteaks, ham, cheese, etc. were served up; yet notwithstanding the frequency of meat diet, par- taken of four or five times a day, the scurvy is not so prevalent here as in Old England: a presumptive proof, that the clearness of atmosphere, experienced throughout the United States, acts powerfully in the prevention of this disease.

Boston,

Boston, for the most part, is airy and pleasantly situated; but many of the streets in the old and centrical parts of the town are very narrow and ill paved; neither is sufficient attention paid to the cleanliness of the streets. The buildings are heavy, antique, and incommodious; but the major part of those in the more elevated situations display considerable taste and elegance. The governor's house, formerly the residence of Mr. Adams (since elected president), Mr. Phillips's, Mr. Rogers's and some others, are very handsome modern edifices many of which, from the steep ascent of the streets, are so elevated as to command at one view a prospect of the whole town. It is, on the whole, by far the most irregular, and has received the fewest improvements, of any capital in the United States. The Exchange and Coffee-house are merely nominal, the latter being inferior to the lowest description of ale-house, while the merchants meet and transact their business in the open, dirty street. From their naturally enterprising and liberal spirit, it is matter of astonishment that a coffee-house has not been erected here, after the manner of the useful and elegant one at New-York; I entertain little doubt, however, that this

this and other improvements will be soon realized among so commercial a people.

Here are commodious docks, containing a great quantity of shipping, and conveniently situated near the merchants' stores or warehouses, for the purposes of lading or unlading, but the port does not equal that of New-York, either in beauty, convenience of situation, or extent of traffic. I was credibly informed, that the trade of Boston is in a manner stationary, and has not increased in proportion to the other principal sea-port-towns in the Union. This, which I think much to their credit, may in some measure be accounted for, from their greater solidity of character in conducting business; whilst innumerable mischiefs have resulted from the extensive speculations too frequently occurring among the more ardent people of the south. I must likewise add, that Boston possesses one very distinguished advantage, which is a material consideration to the trading part of a community, as also to persons desirous of emigrating, namely, that processes of law and recovery of debts are obtained there more easily and speedily than in most other places.

Markets are exceedingly well and plentifully supplied: fish and poultry may be had in abundance, and from the climate being more favourable to good pasture, this state far excels the southern, or even midland ones, in all kinds of butchers' meat. Vegetables, however, are neither so good nor so cheap in this, nor, indeed, in any part of the United States, as might be expected from the low price of land, and other advantages: but this arises from a neglect of bestowing proper culture on the soil, and leaving nature too much to its own unassisted efforts. The same inattention and defect is discovérable in their fruits. Soil and situation do every thing; the choicest fruits in some parts growing luxuriously by the road side; but from a want of the usual methods of improving them by horticulture, their fine flavour is lost; and their peaches and other delicious fruits, though apparently natural to the country, will not stand the test of comparison with similar productions in England.

The negroes in Boston, compared with those in the more southern towns, are very few in number, the menial servants being mostly white people. This is no trifling consideration to an Eu-

European, unaccustomed to their hue and features, and the more disagreeable effluvia exhaling from their bodies. Yet, to do justice to the blacks, I never found any instances among them of impertinent or disobliging behaviour. The police of this town is well regulated; disorderly houses and flagrant breaches of the public peace being rarely met with or taking place. The number of inhabitants is computed at about 32,000.

At the short distance of three miles from hence is the pleasantly situated, and not inconsiderable town of Cambridge, famous for its college, where a number of students are educated much in the manner of the English universities. In this neighbourhood are the country-seats of many of the opulent merchants, who have spared no expence to diversify and improve the rich scenery furnished by the hand of nature.

Coaches stand for hire in the principal streets of Boston; a very useful convenience, which has not yet been established in the larger towns of New York and Philadelphia. A regular, handsome, and well managed theatre, with able performers, meet with due encouragement from the

inhabitants. This with assemblies, concerts, and promenades, constitute the chief of their recreations and diversions: hither, as in other places, resort the Boston fair, who, in beauty of complexion and feature, are justly acknowledged to excel all others on the continent.

Considering the capital of Massachusetts in the aggregate, I prefer it, as a place of residence, to any other town or city I have visited on that side of the Atlantic; for while it possesses neither the beauty nor the regularity of Philadelphia nor the elegant buildings and delightful picturesque scenery to be found about New York, you have, to compensate for these defects, people of your own colour to attend on you, are but little pestered with musquitoes and other vermin; nor is the scorching heat of summer felt so intensely; and, above all, it has hitherto been much less afflicted with that baneful and infectious autumnal fever, which of late years, in both the other places, more particularly in the former, has made such terrible ravages.

On my return to New York, leaving the States of Massachusetts and Rhode Island, which in general had the appearance of being well settled

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and in good cultivation, I arrived, after a tedious journey, from the badness of the roads, at the town of Norwich, in the State of Connecticut. This is not a place of any considerable magnitude, neither does it exhibit the appearance of recent improvement: it stands, however, in a pleasant and well sheltered situation, and has an excellent inn, with good accommodations. The landlord is Colonel Brown; a very public spirited and useful citizen. It appears singular to an Englishman on a tour through the United States to find the host, in many, even the most ordinary houses of entertainment, a ci-devant general or colonel, etc. These titles, are not assumed, but were really possessed by the parties in the revolutionary war: and, indeed, they are not a little proud of them; for I have remarked that on neglecting these appellations, the same alacrity has not been shewn, as when their full title, or rather, one exceeding it, was given them.

In this part of New England, the observance of the Sabbath and religious duties is rigidly adhered to, neither public nor private travelling being allowed on that day; and it is considered as in some measure disreputable to neglect attendance

on public worship. This strict observance of the Sunday is, however, chiefly confined to the state of Connecticut, as it does not extend generally even through the New England states. In many parts of the latter, but more particularly in the midland and southern provinces of the United States, irreligion, with its usual attendant, immorality, seem to be advancing with hasty strides, more especially among the rising generation.

Proceeding on my journey from Norwich to Hertford, the capital of this state (Connecticut), distant about forty miles, I remarked in general a fertile soil and large farms, breeding great numbers of cattle, with a few very pretty villages interspersed. Stopping at one of these to dine, and having received the usual salutation, not less prevalent, than unmannerly, not to say impertinent, among the inhabitants of New England, of, „Sir, I perceive you are from the old country? — where are you going? — what is your business? etc, I was requested by my good landlady to walk in to an adjoining room, to act the part of an interpreter to a country-woman of mine, who a few days before had landed at Boston. Fortunately for my good hostess we were both

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literally from the same county, otherwise none of us would probably have been the wiser; for this woman, with her four children, I found, had just arrived from Lancashire in search of her husband, who had written for her, having settled here advantageously; but she spoke the provincial dialect so very broad and coarse, that very few of her words were intelligible. Having explained the language of the Lancashire woman to my inquisitive landlady, she was desirous of knowing why, both coming from England, we should talk so differently? The reason why this appeared so very singular to my hostess was, that considering the vast difference in extent of country in the United States, the English language is spoke there very plain; and what is yet more surprising, in general, pretty grammatically.

Hertford, the capital of this state, is a populous and well built town; the streets are spacious and regular; it enjoys a considerable trade, which will no doubt increase rather than otherwise, if we consider its advantageous position, on a fine navigable river, and lying in a line directly central with New York and Boston; it is likewise, from its situation, the grand mart to the capital

of the state of Vermont. From hence to Newhaven, which is in the same state, about thirty miles distant, the country appeared more settled than any I had yet seen on the Continent. We passed along the banks of the connecticut river, through many small towns and villages, whose inhabitants were chiefly occupied in barrelling ships provisions; great quantities of which are annually sent down from thence to New York, and so to the West India Islands.

Ship-building is another lucrative and considerable branch of trade in this district. Much fine timber grows adjacent to the river, which enables the inhabitants to build at an easy and cheap rate vessels of many tons burthen: these are mostly chartered or sold to the New York merchants. The oak timber they use for the purpose just mentioned, is neither so firm nor so lasting as that used in England, the common calculation of a ship's durability not exceeding eight or nine years; but there is a sort, which they distinguish by the name of live oak, found in many parts of Vermont, that is considered as equally, if not more stout and durable than any used in Europe.

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Newhaven is a large town, irregularly built but airy and spacious, containing many handsome houses in the rural style, with gardens annexed to them. Many families resort thither from various parts, on account of its beauty and healthfulness; preferring this place, as their seat of retirement, and chusing to enjoy here the emoluments derived from a life of industry. This town is also famous for a handsome and extensive college, with professors and tutors, for the education of youth in every branch of science: it is, moreover, under excellent regulations. This public seminary is in great repute on the continent; many of the American youth resorting to it from different parts of the southern countries, upwards of 500 miles distant. A number of packet boats, every suitable tide, sail from hence to New York.

As I learned, from good authority, that nothing very striking or interesting was to be expected in the route by land, and as the roads were also very indifferent, I thought it right to take my passage by the above conveyance; and this, in fact, concluded my month's tour through a great part of the New England states, justly accounted the best settled country, with the most steady and

informed inhabitants in the Union; yet truth obliges me to add, that I could not help discovering amongst them in general a keenness nearly approximating to dishonesty, together with an uncommon passion for gambling, and a strong predominating spirit for airy speculations, in preference to substantial, regular, well conducted commerce.

These are a few of my cursory, but impartial remarks, containing some little information relative to the extensive territory of the United States of America; which, from various favourable circumstances and events, but chiefly from its enlightened spirit of universal toleration, will, in all probability, at some Future, perhaps not very remote period, become highly prominent in arts and sciences, wealth and power! Well might the comprehensive mind of Dr. Franklin, in his last moments, exclaim, „Could I but a century hence revisit thee, my country, and take one view of thy improvements and prosperity!“ The scene of life closed upon him, ere he could collect sufficient strength to complete the sentence!

III.

Account of the English settlement in the bay of Honduras.

The accounts just received of an attak made by the Spaniards on the bay of Honduras, the particulars of which we are however yet to learn, give some interest respecting the nature of a country almost unknown (*a*). As from a residence there of several years, I have had an opportunity of being well acquainted with this settlement, I beg leave through the channel of the Monthly Magazine to give some information to the public upon this subject.

To this establishment we have improperly given the name of the bay of Honduras. It is not a bay; and Honduras is the name of Spanish Province to the south and south east of the British settlement. I shall however adhere to the popular name.

This

(*a*) No Geographer has decribed this country. The only travaller that has given any account of it is Captain Nathaniel Uring, who, in a book of Voyages and Travels, published in 1740, gives some particulars of two trading voyages he made to this place.

This settlemement is a part of Yucatan, a Spanish province which forms a Peninsula running out from the kingdom of Mexico to the northward, into de gulph of Mexico. Here and at campeachy (on the western coast of Yucatan) the English have been in the habits of cutting logwood from an early period of the present century. At Campeachy, however, it has now been long disused, and there, as well as at the Bay of Honduras, it met with constant interruptions from the Spaniards; and it is well known to have been a principal cause of the war in 1740.

This establissement, however, never assumed a regular form until after the peace of 1763. The Baymen then became more respectable than they had formerly been, and besides their places for cutting wood in the river, formed a sort of town on a little island on the coast, called St. Georges key (or according to the Spaniards *Cayo Casina*) from which, as well as all the other parts of the district, the logwood cutters were expelled by the Spaniards in the American war. In fact, the Spanish government never acknowledged or allowed the right of the British to cut logwood in any part

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of this country previous to the definitive treaty of peace of 1783, and it was not till the convention of 1786, that the privilege was granted of cutting mahogany.

The Bay of Honduras extends along the east coast of Yucatan, for about sixty or seventy miles. The Rio Hondo (deep river) is the northern boundary; and there are also the new river; the river Belize or Wallis, and the river Sibun or Iabon, which is the boundary to the south — the intermediate space between Belize and Sibun being granted as an additional district, in consideration of the evacuation of the Mosquito shore, by the convention between Great Britain and Spain of 1786. These rivers are intersected by a bounding-line running at different distances, from twenty to eigthy miles in the country. St. George's key is also included in the English settlement. The four rivers are all navigable for twenty miles and upwards, by vessels of considerable burthen, and much higher by canoes (*a*).

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(*a*) The canoes generally used, are of a particular and very handsome form to which they give the name of Dories. They have also a flat botomed Kind shaped like Thames Punts — these they call Pitpans.

The whole Peninsula of Yucatan is supposed by naturalists, to have been formerly sea, and there appear strong grounds for their conjecture — 1st. It is entirely a flat and very low lying land, while all the adjacent country is mountainous — 2 d. It every where contains in the interior salt water lakes, which have no visible communication with the sea — 3dly, Through the whole country are to be found marine shells — and lastly, all along the coast are little islands, or keys as they are called, mere beds of sand, and having every appearance of being thrown up from the sea.

The ground is generally swampy and covered with wood. Mahogany as well as logwood, fustic and other dying woods, and also iron-wood, bullet-tree, lignum vitae and other kinds of hard timber, grow in great abundance; and the remainder of the surface is filled with the different species of palm, cotton tree; and others; but principally by the aquatic shrubs, called mangrove and a variety of underwood. There are besides in some places barren plains, or which at least bear only a coarse and useless kind of grass. The *rivers* are the only *highways*.

Such-

Such a country it may be easily believed is not healthy. St. George's key and the other keys on the coast, however, are extremely salubrious and form a desirable retreat to the sick and the valetudinary. The heat in Honduras is nearly the same as in the West India islands, and like them it enjoyes the sea breezes, except occasionally during the winter, when the north wind blowing over the frozen continent of America, produces here a very pleasant temperature, sometimes even so cold as to make a fire comfortable.

On the banks of the river, and the neighbourhood of these banks, the settlers cut logwood and mahogany, which having now become pretty much exhausted immediately on the rivers sides, is obliged to be carried a considerable distance, frequently several miles, on roads made on purpose, and where it is dragged by oxen brought from England or Iamaica, for no cattle are bred in the district, or used there but for draught. In Belize the mahogany is floated down the river, and sent on board of vessels in the road-stead opposite to its mouth. From the rest of the rivers the mahogany as well as other woods are carried in coasting vessels from twenty to an hundred

tons

tons burthen, either to Belize river's mouth, or St. George's key, these being the only places where vessels lie to receive it.

At the mouth of Belize, which was the oldest establishment, and is the principal river, both in respect to the length of its course, and the quantity of mahogany on its banks, the inhabitants have formed a town, not of extraordinary size or elegance, but which is their principal rendezvous where the courts are held, etc. — and I may here mention, that in September 1786, a tremendous hurricane and inundation of the sea took place, which not only destroyed every house or hut in the town, but either sunk or drove on shore every ship and vessel in the settlement, and several hundred lives were lost at sea and on shore. So great was the influx of the sea, that I, who was upon the spot at the time, was up to the neck in water on the highest ground in the town, and might have been drowned, had I not with a number of other persons, got into a large canoe which we fastened to a stout tree. As the greatest of the town consisted of huts made of palmetto poles, and covered with palmetto leaves, it was easily rebuilt; and there have been since erected

erected some more comfortable houses of wood and covered with shingles. The place has been also necessarily much enlarged to accommodate the emigrands from the Mosquito shore.

The trade of Honduras is of greater importance than is generally supposed: I had occasion to keep an account of it officially for several years. That account I have not now before me; but from memory I give the following statement of it, as it was in the year 1790, when I left the settlement.

It employed nearly one hundred vessels of all descriptions, (exclusive of the coasting craft of the country) to the amount of twelve thousand tons burthen, having on board about one thousand seamen. The exports were above four millions of feet of mahogany, and eight hundred tons of logwood, besides other articles of less consequence — The imports were all the variety of European manufactures, and provisions. Besides the value of the exports, and the advange to the mother country from the consumption of her manufactures; the reader will consider the number of seamen this trade employed — he will consider the num-

ber of seamen this trade employed, he will consider the number of artificers employed in England to work the mahogany, and he will consider the advantage to this nation from the exportation of it in its manufactured state. Of the dying woods the same may be observed, and as these are now in consequence of the war become much higher priced, a greater quantity will be imported; for during my residence at Honduras, logwood was not imported into Britain as an article of profit, but merely as *dunnage* for the ships.

For the want of specie, payments were generally made in wood. The established price for that purpose was 15 l. currency (10 l. 12 s. 7 d. sterling) per thousand feet for mahogany, and 4 l. currency (2 l. 17 s. sterling) per ton for logwood, and these payments were not reckoned equal to above two thirds of payments in cash or bills. (a)

The number of inhabitants in the year 1790 amounted to nearly two thousand five hundred

Of

(a) The price of mahogany in London was then from 4 d. to 10 d. per foot, now it is treble — the price of logwood not 5 l. per ton, and now it is nearly five times that amount, About the year 1720, logwood sold in England for 100 l. per ton.

)f these about fourfifths were negro slaves, and great proportion of the remainder persons of co-our, or *Mestees*, being a mixture of whites with ndians, or of whites or Indians with negroes.)f this population nearly three-fourths were emi-grants from the Musquito shore, who evacuated hat country in terms of the convention of 1786. There are no Indians in the district (*a*).

Captain Uring, whose voyages I have before nentioned, gives no very favourable picture of the Baymen. He pronounces them a savage set)f people all sailors and mostly pirates; who, while they could procure strong liquors, lived in the most beastly way, and gave themselves up to all manner of filthy debauchery. I am happy to say that there are now many instances of civili-zed, well behaved, and well informed men among the wood-cutters (*b*), but, I must at the same

 time

(*a*) See more upon this Subject, as well as on others respecting the Honduras settlement in the „*Memoirs of Edward Marcus Desbard*," lately king's superintendant in that district, just published by Ridgway.

(*b*) The reader will understand, that this settlement has attained a considerable degree of civilization, when

time confess, that the race of old Baymen is not quite extinct. One class in particular comes nearly up to Mr. Uring's description, the turtle fishers, or turtlers, as they are called. These, (though not pirates) consist of some hundreds of old sailors whom idleness has led to this savage life. They inhabit the keys before spoken of, where they subsist mostly upon fish, and some salt beef and biscuit, which they purchase on the continent with the money they receive for turtle. This money, however, is mostly expended in rum, which is not allowed to grow old in their possession. It will be easily supposed that neither the males nor the females of this class are remarkably delicate either in person or behaviour (*a*).

If I should be asked, what is the religion in this settlement? I must answer, none to my know-

when he is informed, that in 1789, an injured husband recovered by law damages against the seducer of his wife.

(*a*) Here are a good many merchants and several medical men, but no lawyers, nor any artisans, except a very few carpenters and one or two taylors. They admit no Jews to settle among them. In Belize town there is one tavern, first established 1786.

knowledge. — Here is no priest, no church, no public worship. It is a subject, in short, never thought of. What a happy opportunity for the missionary society to extend their pious labours *(a)*!

I am truly sorry to add, that in a country containing between two and three thousand inhabitants there is not a schoolmaster. One person attempted the task for some time during my stay at Honduras, but received little or no encouragement.

IV.

History and Description of St. Vincent and its Dependencies and Dominica.

The civil history of these islands may be comprised in a narrow compass; for the sove-

 reignty

(a) While Colonell *Despard* was at Honduras, in the capacity of superintendant of his majesty's affairs, he made repeated and earnest applications to government to establish a clergyman in this settlement, but without success.

reignty of them having been long an obj
of dispute between the crowns of Great Brit
and France, the rightful possessors, the Charaib
derived that security from the reciprocal envy a
avarice of the contending parties; which th
might have expected in vain from their justice a
humanity. As both St. Vincent and Domi
were included, with many other islands, in t
Earl of Carlisle's patent, it is not wonderful th
attempts were made, at different times, to bri
them under the English dominion. These attem
the French constantly opposed, with design,
was urged, secretly and surreptitiously to occ
py the Islands themselves; and their conduct t
wards the Charaibes on other occasions seems
justify the suggestion.

But, whatever might have been their motiv
they exerted themselves with such effect, th
the English were compelled to relinquish
hopes of optaining these islands by force;
for by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle (1748)
Vincent, Dominica, St. Lucia, and Tabago, w
declared neutral, and the ancient proprieto
(such as remained of them) were at length l
in unmolested possession.

The disputes and hostilities which these attempts of the English on the one hand, and resistance of the French on the other, gave rise to in this part of the world, are no longer interesting, and therefore need not be brought again to remembrance. The depravity and injustice of mankind are at all times subjects of unpleasing speculation; but the subsequent conduct of both nations, respecting the Islands which they had declared neutral, is too remarkable to be overlooked, even if historical precision did not, as in the present case it does, require me to relate the circumstances attending it.

The treaty of neutrality was no sooner concluded, than both English and French appeared dissatisfied with the arrangement which they had made. The latter seem not to have considered until it was too late, that by restricting the English from the occupancy of those countries, on the ground of right in a third party, they precluded themselves at the same time. The English, on the other hand, discovered that, by acceding to the compromise, they had given up St. Lucia, an Island worth all the rest, and to which it must be owned we had some colourable

pretensions, founded on a treaty entered into with the Charaibean inhabitants in 1664, six hundred of whom attended an armament that was sent thither by Lord Willoughby, and actually put the English publickly and formally into possession.

Both nations being thus alike dissatisfied with an arrangement which left nothing to either, it may be supposed, that on the conclusion of the war which broke out a few years afterwards, a very different stipulation took place. The French no longer pleaded scruples on behalf of the Charaibes, but very cordially concurred with the English in dividing the spoil. By the 9th. article of the peace of Paris, signed the 10th. of February 1763, the three Islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tabago, were assigned to Great Britain, and St. Lucia to France, in full and perpetual sovereignty; the Charaibes not being once mentioned in the whole transaction, as if no such people existed.

They were in truth reduced to a miserable remnant. — Of the ancient, or, as they were called by the English, Red Charaibes, not more than

than a hundred families survived in 1763, and of all their ancient and extensive possessions, these poor people retained only a mountainous district in the Island of St. Vincent. Of this Island and its dependencies I shall now treat, reserving Dominica for a separate section.

Section I.

St. Vincent.

„*The* Spaniards (says Doctor Campbell) bestowed the name of St. Vincent upon this Island, because they discovered it upon the 22d. of January, which in their calendar is St. Vincent's day, but it does not appear that they were ever, properly speaking, in possession of it; the Indians being very numerous here on account of its being the rendezvous of their expeditions to the continent." Unfortunately, however, neither their numbers, nor the natural strength of the country, exempted them from hostility. What avarice had in vain attempted accident accomplished by procuring an establishment among them for a race of people, whom, though at first beheld by the native Charaibes with contempt or pity, they

have since found formidable rivals and merciless conquerors. These people have been long distinguished, however improperly, by the name of Black Charaibes.

Of the origin of these intruders, and their ancient connection with the native Charaibes, the best account that I have been able to find is in a small treatise of the author above quoted (Doctor Campbell) entitled „Candid and impartial considerations on the nature of the Sugartrade," which being equally authentick and curious, I shal present to my readers entire, and with the less scruple, because it consists chiefly of an official paper which cannot be abridged without injury.

„In 1672, King Charles thought fit to divide these governments, and by a new commission appointed Lord Willoughby Governor of Barbadoes, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Dominica; Sir William Stapleton being appointed Governor of the other Leeward Isles, and this separation has subsisted ever since, the same Islands being constantly inserted in every new Governor's patent. On the demise of Lord Willoughby, Sir Ionathan Atkins was appointed Governor of Barbadoes, and

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the rest of these Islands, and so continued till 1680, when he was succeeded by Sir Richard Dutton, who being sent for to England in 1685, appointed Colonel Edwin Stede Lieutenant Governor, who vigorously asserted our rights by appointing Deputy Governors for the other Islands; and particularly sent Captain Temple hither to prevent the French from wooding and watering without our permission, to which they had been encouraged by the inattention of the former Governors; persisting steadily in this conduct, till it was signified to him, as we have had occasion to remark before, that the king had signed an act of neutrality, and that commissioners were appointed by the two courts, to settle all differences relative to these Islands.

„*Some* years after, a ship from Guinea, with a large cargo of slaves, either was wrecked or run on shore upon the Islands of St. Vincent, into th woods and mountains of which great numbers of t negroes escaped (*a*). Here, whether willingly r

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(*a*) I am informed by Sir William Young, who perfectly well acquainted with these people, t they were originally a race of Mocoes, a tribe nation from

unwillingly is a little uncertain, the Indians suffered them to remain, and partly by the accession of runaway slaves from Barbadoes, partly by the children they had by the Indian women, they became very numerous; so that about the beginning of the current century they constrained the Indians to retire into the north west part of the island. These people, as may be reasonnably supposed, were much dissatisfied with this treatment, and complained of it occasionally both to the English and to the French, that came to wood and water amongst them. The latter at length suffered themselves to be prevailed upon to attack these invaders, in the cause of their old allies; and from a persuasion that they should find more difficulty in dealing with these Negroes, in case they were suffered to strengthen themselves than

from the Bight of Benin. They were wrecked on the coast of Bequin, a small island about two leagues from St. Vincent, in the year 1675, and were afterwards joined by great numbers of fugitive negroes rom the other islands. The Red Charaibes first kept em in slavery; but finding their numbers encrease, e to a resolution to put to death all their male ch ren; upon which the blacks rose on their masters, wh y degrees have almost all perished in the contest.

than with the Indians. After much deliberation, in the year 1719, they came with a considerable force from Martinico, and landing without much opposition, began to burn the Negro huts and destroy their plantations, supposing that the Indians would have attacked them in the mountains, which if they had done, the blacks had probably been extirpated, or forced to submit and become slaves. But either from fear or policy, the Indians did nothing, and the Negroes sallying in the night, and retreating in the day to places inaccessible to the whites, destroyed so many of the French (amongst whom was Mr. Paulian, Major of Martinique, who commanded them) that they were forced to retire. When by this experiment they were convinced that force would not do, they had recourse to fair means, and by dint of persuasions and presents, patched up a peace with the Negroes as well as the Indians, from which they received great advantage.

„*Things* were in this situation when Captain Uring came with a considerable armament to take possession of St. Lucia and this Island, in virtue of a grant from our late sovereign King George I. to the late Duke of Montague. When the French had

had dislodged this gentleman, by a superior force from St. Lucia, he sent captain Braithwaite to try what could be done at the Island of St. Vincent, in which he was not at all more successful, as will best appear from that gentleman's report to Mr. Uring, which, as it contains several curious circumstances relative to the country, and to the two independent nations who then inhabited it, belongs properly to this subject and cannot but prove entertaining to the reader. The paper is without date, but it appears from Mr. Uring's memoirs that this transaction happened in the spring of the year 1723.

The Report.

„*In* pursuance of a resulution in council and your order for so doing, the day you sailed with his Grace's colony for Antego, I sailed with the Griffin sloop, in company with his Majestys ship the Winchelsea, to St. Vincent. We made the Island that night, and next morning run along shore, and saw several Indian huts, but as yet no Indians came of to us, nor could we get ashore to them, by reason there was no ground to anchor in. Towards the evening, two Indians came on board

board, and told us, we might anchor in a bay to leeward, and when we were at anchor they would bring their General on board. Here we came to an anchor in deep water, and very dangerous for the sloop. One, whom they call General, came on board, with several others, to the numbers of twenty-two. I entertained them very handsomely, and made the Chief some trifling presents, but found he was a person of no consequence, and that they called him Chief to get some present from me. Here two of the Indians were so drunk they would not go ashore, but staid on board some days, and were well entertained. After this, little winds and great currents drove us off for several days; but at last, we came to an anchor in a spacious bay, to leeward of all the Island, the draught of which I ordered to be taken by our surveyor, for your better understanding the place, being the only one where a settlement could be made. The ship and sloop were scarce come to anchor, before the strand of the shore was covered with Indians, and among them we could discover a white, who proved to be a Frenchman. I took Captain Wotson in the boat with me, with a Frenchman, and immediately went ashore. As soon as I came amongst them;

I asked them why they appeared all armed? For every man had cutlasses, some had musquets, pistols, bows and arrows etc. They with very little ceremony inclosed me, and carried me up the country about a mile, over a little rivulet, where I was told I was to see their General. I found him sitting amidst a gouard of about a hundred Indians, those nearest his person had musquets, the rest bows and arrows, and great silence. He ordered me a seat and a Frenchman stood at his right hand, for an interpreter, he demanded of me, what brought me into his country, and of what nation? I told him English, and he was put in to wood and water, as not caring to say any thing else before the Frenchman; but told him if he would be pleased to come on board our ships, I would leave Englishmen in hostage for him and those he should be pleased to bring with him; but I could not prevail with him either to come on board, or suffer me to have wood and water. He said he was informed we were come to force a settlement, and we had no other way to remove that jealousy but to get under sail. As soon as I found what influence the Frenchman's company had upon them, I took my leave, after making such replies as I thought proper, and returned to my boat under a guard

guard. When I came to the shore I found the guard there were increased by a number of Negroes, all armed with fuzees. I got in my boat, without any injury, and went on board to Captain Orme, and told him my ill success.

„*Immediately* after, I sent on shore the ships boat with a mate, with rum, beef and bread etc., with some cutlasses, and ordered a Frenchman who went with the mate, to desire the guard to conduct them to their General, and to tell him, that though he denied me the common good of water and a little useless wood, nevertheless I had sent him such refreshments as our ships afforded. Our people found the Frenchman gone, and that then the Indian General seemed pleased, and received what was sent him, and in return sent me bows and arrows."

„Our people had not been long returned before their General sent a canoe, with two chief Indians, who spoke very good French, to thank me for my presents, and to ask pardon for his refusing me wood and water, and assured me I might have what I pleased; and they had orders to tell me, if I pleased to go ashore again, they

were to remain hostages for my civil treatment. I sent them on board the man of war, and with Captain Watson went on shore. I was well received, and conducted as before. But now I found the brother of the chief of the Negroes was arrived, with five hundred Negroes, most armed with fuzees. They told my interpreter they were assured we were come to force a settlement, or else they would not have denied me what they never before denied any English, viz. wood and water. But, if I pleased, I might take in what I wanted under a guard. Finding them in so good a humour, I once more introduced the desire I had to entertain them on board our ships, and with some difficulty prevailed with them, by leaving Captain Watson on shore under their guard as a hostage. I carried them on board the Kings ship; where they were well entertained by Captain Orme, who gave the Indian General a fine fuzee of his own, and to the Chief of the Negroes something that pleased him. Captain Orme assured him of the friendship of the King of England etc. The Negroe Chief spoke exellent French, and gave answers with the French compliments. Afterwards I carried them on board the Duke's sloop, and after

ope-

opening their hearts with wine, for they scorned to drink rum, I thought it a good time to tell them my commission, and that brought me on their coast. They told me it was well I had not mentioned it ashore, for their power could not have protected me; that it was impossible; the Dutch had before attempted it, but were glad to retire. They likewise told me, two French sloops had, the day before we came, been amongst them, gave them arms and amunition, and assured them of the whole force of Martinico for their protection against us. They told them also, that they had drove us from St. Lucia, and that now we were come to endeavour to force a settlement there; and, notwithstanding all our specious pretences, when we had power, we should enslave them; but declared they would trust no Europeans; that they owned themselves under the protection of the French, but would as soon oppose their settling amongst them, or any act of force from them, as us, as they had lately given an example, by killing several; and they further told me, it was by very large presents the French ever got in their favour again; but they resolved never to put it in the power of any European to hurt them. They advised me

As the subject is no longer interresting to the publick, I need only observe, that if the claim of the British crown to the sovereignty of this country was originally just and valid, then I do readily acknowledge that the measures pursued by the British administration to enforce that claim, were as lenient and considerate as the case could possibly allow; and I was misinformed when I gave a diffirent representation. Nevertheless, I will not sacrifice, even on the shrine of friendship, the dignity of historical narration, by asserting that my friend has entirely convinced me that the pretensions of Great Britain were originally founded on any other plea than that of political expediency. — I am here speaking of the British claim, as against the actual possessors of the country, tho black Charaibes. This claim, no cession or abandonment on the part of France could have strengthened; inasmuch as Great Britain herself constantly disputed the pretensions of that Crown to the neutral islands, St. Vincent among the rest. The Charaibes themselves, as the report above quoted demonstrates, and as my friend admits, uniformly and absolutely denied any right in any of the foreigns of Europe to their allegiance. They averred that they knew

no

no king, and would acknowledge none. They said, they had originally been landed on the island by shipwreck, and held it not only by right of conquest over the aborigines, but also by actual possession for near a century. " Such was their title to St. Vincent's, and it would have been difficult, I think, for any nation in Europe to produce a better.

Happily, by the temperate councils and the humane interposition of the civil commissioners employed by government to dispose of the lands, the contest with these people (not however until hostilities had been commenced and many lives sacrificed) was at length finally compromised and adjusted, to the satisfaction, as it was then hoped, of the contending parties. A treaty of peace and friendship was concluded with them on the 27th February 1773; the articles of which I have subjoined in an appendix to this chapter.

By this treaty the situation of the Charaibes in respect to the Crown of Great Britain, was defined and clearly expressed; and I admit that that future conduct was to be tried by the terms of it.

On the 19th of June 1779, St. Vincent's shared the common fate of most of the British West Indian possessions, in that unfortunate war with America, which swallowed up all the resources of the nation, being captured by a small body of troops from Martinico, consisting of only four hundred and fifty men, commanded by a Lieutenant in the French navy. The black Charaibes however, notwithstanding the treaty of 1773, immediately joined the enemy, and there is no doubt that the terror which seized the British inhabitants, from an apprehension that those people would proceed to the most bloody enormities, contributed to the very easy victory which was obtained by the invaders; for the island surrendered without a struggle. The terms of capitulation were favourable, and the island was restored to the dominion of Great Britain by the general pacification of 1783. It contained at that time sixty-one sugar estates, five hundred acres in coffee, two hundred acres in cacao, four hundred in cotton, fifty in indigo, and five hundred in tabacco, besides land appropriated to the raising provision, such as plantaings, yams, maize etc. All the rest of the country, excepting the few spots that had been cleared from

time

ime to time by the Charaibes, retained its native woods, and most of it, I believe, continues in he same state to the present hour.

It is remarkable that no stipulation was male by the French government on this occasion, on behalf of their allies the Charaibes, whom they had seduced from their allegiance; and it therefore reflects great honour, both on the British government and the resident planters, that no advantage was taken of their misconduct. The Charaibes even those who had been the most active in the war, were permitted to return peaceably to their possessions and occupations. They were treated as an ignorant and deluded people; as objects of compassion, not of vengeance, and it was prudently and generously agreed, as by common consent, to bury all past offences and causes of complaint in oblivion.

St. Vincent's contains about 84,000 acres, which are every where well watered, but the country is very generally mountainous and rugged; the intermediate vallies, however, are fertile in a high degree, the soil consisting chiefly of a fine mould, composed of sand and clay, well adap-

adapted for sugar. The extent of country at present possessed by British subjects is 23,605 acres, and about as much more is supposed to be held by the Charaibes. All the remainder is thought to be incapable of cultivation or improvement.

The Island, or rather the British territory within it, is divided into five parishes, of which only one was provided with a church; and that was blown down in the hurricane of 1780; whether it is rebuilt I am not informed. There is one town, called Kingston, the capital of the island, and the seat of its government, and three villages that bear the name of towns, but they are inconsiderable hamlets, consisting each of a few houses only.

But the publick establishment that reflects the greatest honour on St. Vincent's is its celebrated botanick garden, under the provident and well directed care of Mr. Anderson. It consists of 30 acres, of which no less than sixteen are in high cultivation, abounding not only with almost every species of the vegetable world, which the hand of nature has bestowed on these island for use and beauty, for food and luxury, but also with

with many valuable exoticks from the East Indies, and South America. — If it be surpassed in this latter respect, by the magnificent garden of Mr. East (*a*), it claims at least the honour of seniority, and does infinite credit both to its original founders and present directors.

In the frame of its government and the administration of executive justice, St. Vincent seems to differ in no respect from Grenada. — The council consist of twelve members, the assembly of seventeen. The governor's salary (exclusive of fees of office) is two thousand pounds sterling of which L. 1,300 is a charge upon the fund arising from the duty of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per centum. The remainder is by grant of the assembly.

The military force consist at present of a regiment of infantry, and a company of artillery; sent from England; and a black corps raised in the country, but provided for, whith the former on the British etablishment, and receiving no additional pay from the island. The militia consist of two regiments of foot, serving without pay of any kind.

The

(*a*) In Jamaica.

The number of inhabitants appears, by the last returns to government, to be one thousand four hundred and fifty Whites, and eleven thousand eight hundred and fifty-three Negroes.

Of the labour of these people I have no other means of shewing the returns, than from the Inspector General's account of the exports from this island for 1787, a table of which, as in the case of the other island, is subjoined. In this table, however, I conceive is comprehended the produce of the several islands dependent on the St. Vincent government, viz. Bequia, containing 3,700 acres. This little island is valuable from the commodiousness of its fine harbour, called Admiralty Bay; Union, containing 2,150 acres, Canouane, containing 1,777 acres; and Mustique, containing about 1,203 acres (*a*); the Negroes employed in the cultivation of these islands (in number about 1,400) being, I believe, included in the 11,853 before mentioned.

His

(*a*) There are likewise the little Islots of Petit Martinique, Petit St. Vincent, Maillereau, and Balleseau; each of which produces a little cotton.

History and Description of the Island of Malta.

(The following valuable article respecting an Island which has always attracted the attention of mankind, and which has lately been a peculiar subject of political speculation, has been communicated to us by a gentleman whose oppertunities of collecting original information are considerable, and who has combined with his own materials those of all the writers who have had occasion to describe it).

The three islands which lately composed the sovereignity of the Grand Master and the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, are *Malta, Gozo*, and *La Cumino*. In approaching them by sea, the coasts of all the islands appear bare and barren, particularly that of *Gozo*, which presents to the view the ruggedest shore to be seen any where; but they are all covered over with towers, redoubts, and fortifications of various kinds. — Malta, however, affords a very fine prospect in sailing towards it from Sicily, notwithstanding the shore in this part is rather low and rocky.

To a vessel approaching the harbour of Valetta, the chief port and metropolis of the island, nothing can be more striking than the external aspect of the city; and nothing more terrible (in sailing under it) than the almost impregnable fortress of St. Elmo, the bastions of which are erected on a rock hanging over and projecting into the sea, with dreadful batteries completely defending the entrance of both the ports.

The stranger is no less struck on getting to to land, (in this seemingly new world,) when he first takes a view of the interior of the harbour; the innumerable forts; the two towns erected in an amphitheatre, the edifices, which, though none of them strikingly beautiful, yet are all in good taste, commodious, and very well built, and have the appearance of being founded on vast and noble bastions; together with the beautiful and extensive flights of stone steps, which lead to large streets, all perfectly straight and parallel, remarkably well paved with white freestone; these various objects combined form a most superb prospect, inferior perhaps in magnificence to none, and certainly not resembling that of any other city upon earth.

The

The new town is that part of the city which built on the right-side of the harbour, and kes its name from its founder, Frederick John e Valetta, one of the grand masters, and the lustrious defender of Malta: it was built soon ter the famous siege by the Turks in 1550. On ie other side, adjoining to the harbour for the allies, is another large town, where the nights formerly dwelt before they removed to Va-etta. It is in every respect as clean and as ele-antly built as the latter. The ships and gallies f the order lie in the harbour at the bottom of vhich it stands.

The houses in both the towns are built of ree-stone; of such remarkable beauty as to ap-ear always new; and the earth and dust are so vhite, that far from soiling the walls, they ap-ear perfectly to renew their colour. This whi-eness, however, of the pavements and walls, both in town and country) creates no little dust; nd from its colour, which is offensive to the ye, and the heat reflected by it, many of the nhabitants are said to be remarkably weak-sighted. The streets are generally crowded with well drest people, who appear to live in health and affluence;

and the inns here have all the appearance o palaces.

The principal buildings are the palace of th Grand Master, the Infirmary, the Arsenal, th Inns or Hotels of the Seven Tongues, and th great and very magnificent church of St. John The pavement of this last is reckoned the riches in the world. It is entirely composed of sepul chral monuments of the finest marbles, porphyry lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones, admira bly fitted together, and representing, in a kin of Mosaic, the arms and insignia of those whom they are intended to commemorate. In the mag nificence of these monuments, the heirs of the grand masters and commanders long vied with each other. The palace is a very noble, though a plain structure; and the grand masters, who generally consulted conveniency more than magni ficence, were thought to be more comfortably and commodiously lodged than any prince in Europe the king of Sardinia excepted. The great stair case is much admired, and spoken of by travel lers as the easiest and best they ever saw. A the whole of Valetta is built upon an eminence none of the streets, except those along the quay are level.

The

The total number of the knights of the order as about a thousand. The household attendance id court of the grand master were very prinly, and his power was more absolute than that many monarchs. Both in the privy-council, here political measures which required secrecy, nd where affairs of the greatest importance were anaged, as also in what was called the Great ouncil, he could propose what he thought fit, nd carry every point, without being himself reponsible for any step. In this latter council, it as requisite that every question to be discussed hould be proposed in the first instance by the raud master himself, so that he could let it remain altogether unnoticed, if he did not wish to ave it determined upon: he also distributed all he lucrative offices and favours of the order; and ould not only create any places he though necesary, but even appoint as many honorary baillies s he had occasion for votes to defeat his oppotents. His titles were Serene Highness and Eminence. He nominated to twenty-one commandeies and one priory (some of which were worth pwards of 2000 l. a year) every five years; and as there were always a great number of expectants or ambitious pretenders, much exterior sub-

mission was paid to him, and he was excee dingly caressed and courted. In 1770, th Chevalier Don Pinto, a Portuguese, who ha presided, over this singular little nation upward of thirty years, had during that time disposed o 126 commanderies, besides priories and other of fices of profit. In fact, the situation of the gran master was the highest and best appointment t which any private individual in Europe coul legally aspire, the papacy excepted.

He was chosen by a committee of twenty one knights, the committee being nominated b the seven nations, three out of each nation The election, by their statutes, was to be ever within three days after the death of the forme grand master. During these three days, scarcel an individual slept in the island, all was caba and intrique; and most of the knights were mas ked in order to prevent their particular attach ments and connections from being discovered.

As Malta was an epitome of all Europe, an an assemblage of the younger brothers, (who ar commonly, perhaps, the best) of its first fami lies, it was certainly one of the best academie

fo

or politeness on the surface of the globe. All he knights and commanders had much the air nd deportment of gentlemen and men of the orld. It was curious, however, to observe the ffect produced upon the various people that composed this heterogeneous mixture, by the familiar intercourse and collision of the individuals of ifferent nations with each other. No particular haracter was to be met with here in the exreme. The French skip and assuming air, the erman strut, stubbornness, and pride, the Spaish stalk, taciturnity, and solemnity, were still o be perceived, although blended in small proortions; the original characteristick were retaied, and might be distinguished, although their xuberance, and what made them appear extraagant and ridiculous, was worn off and had disppeared. The great politeness observable here night also partly be ascribed to this; that as the nights were entitled by law, as well as custom, o demand satisfaction of each other for the least breach of it, every one of course was under a necessity of being very exact and circumspect with regard to his words and actions, as well as to the exterior punctilios of decorum.

This singular order, which was a compound of the military and ecclesiastical policy, has now subsisted with great eclât about 700 years. It was instituted at Jerusalem by Godfrey of Boulogne, (to protect the pilgrims visiting what was called the holy sepulchre, and to maintain an everlasting war with the Mahometans), under the name of the Order of the Knights Hospitalers of the Priory of St. John; which building stood immediately beyond the Chartreux-house in the city. After the loss of Jerusalem, the knights retired from place to place, until having made a conquest of the island of Rhodes, they fixed there, and were thenceforward styled, Knights of Rhodes: in 1522, however, they lost that island to the Turks. The order formerly consisted of eight nations, of which England was one, and possessed great riches here, as well as in other catholic countries, having at one time 19,000 manors in various parts of christendom; but on the separation of this country from the church of Rome, Henry VIII. confiscated all their possessions. Their priory-house in London stood in the Strand, and contributed its materials to build the spacious palace of the Protector Somerset, in the reign of Edward VI.

Tra

Travellers who have been present at the celebration of their church service (particularly in the church of St. John) speak of it as infinitely more charged with parade and ceremony than what is observed in the other catholic countries. The number of genuflexions before the altar, the kissing of the prior's hand, the holding up of his robes by the subaltern priests, the ceremony of throwing incense upon all the Knights of the Great Cross, and neglecting the poorer knights; with a variety and multiplicity of other articles, would appear highly ridiculous to a protestant, and are certainly very remote from the essential purity and simplicity of primitive Christian worship (*a*).

(*a*) The anniversary of the raising of the siege in 1566 was always celebrated at Malta as a public festival. It began with a mortuary service at St. John's church for the valiant knights who lost their lives at the siege and whose names were commemorated with an eulogium on the heroic exploits by which they had immortalized themselves. This was performed on the eve of the anniversary. On the following day, all the troops being under arms, the Grand Master was saluted according to the military forms; the gospel was

The land force at Malta was equal to the whole number of men in the island, capable of bear

was read aloud under the great standard of the order, which (after this) was displayed under a canopy by his seat, and a page presented him with a sword and poignard, which Philip II. had sent on the occasion to the Grand Master, Valetta. The whole ceremony ended with a long procession, during which salvoes of cannon were fired of all the batteries of the forts.

The 6th of June was likewise observed as a solemn day of thanksgiving for their deliverance from a terrible conspiracy that was formed about thirty-nine years ago by the Mahometan slaves, at one stroke to exterminate the whole order of Malta. All the fountains of the place were to be poisoned, and every have had taken a solemn oath to put his master to death. It was discovered by a Jew who kept a coffee-house. He understood the Turkish language, and over-hearing some discourse which he thought suspicious, he went immediately apprehended, and being put to the torture, soon confessed the whole plot. The executions that followed were very terrible. Some were burned alive, some were broken on the wheel, and some were torn to pieces by the four galleys rowing in different directions, and

bearing arms. They had a regiment of about five hundred regulars, who served on board their ships of war; and one hundred and fifty composed the guard of the sovereign. Their sea force commonly consisted of four galleys, three galliots, four ships of sixty guns, and a frigate of thirty-six, besides a number of quick-sailing little vessels, called *scampa vias*, from their exceeding swiftness; literally *runaways*. The Maltese sailors are remarkably robust and hardy; many of them will row for ten or twelve hours successively, without even the appearance of being fatigued *(a)*.

and each bringing off its time. Since that time the conduct of the slaves has been much more strictly watched, and they have been allowed less liberty than formerly. Notwithstading, however, the supposed bigotry of the Maltese, the spirit of toleration had become so predominant, that about thirty years ago they built a mosque for their professed enemies, the Mahometans; and here the poor slaves were allowed to enjoy their religion in peace.

(a) An English gentleman, who visited the island in 1770, thus describes the circumstances attending the departure of a Maltese squadron from the Port.

„Ele-

Next in importance to the city of Valetta (often called Malta) is Civita-Vecchia, or Cite

No-

„Eleven at Night - The shew is now finished, it has afforded us great entertainment. The Bey of Tunis, it seems, has fallen under the displeasure of the Grand Monarque, because he refused to deliver up without ransom the Corsican slaves that were taken before the French were in possession of the island. The squadron consisted of three gallieys, the largest with nine hundred men, each of the others with seven hundred, three galliots, and seven scampavias. These immense bodies were all worked by oars, and moved with great regularity. The Admiral went first; the rest in order, according to their dignity. The sea was crowded with small boats and feluccas, and the ramparts and fortifications were filled with company. The port resounded on all sides with the discharge of heavy artillery, which was answered by the gallies and galliots as they left the harbour. As the echo here is surprisingly great it produced a very noble effect."

„There were about thirty knights in each galley, making signals all the way to their mistresses, who were weeping for their departure upon the bastions; for these gentlemen pay as little regard to their vows of chastity as the priests and confessors do. After

vie-

Notabile, called *Melita* by the ancients; this is most probably the oldest town in the island, and was its capital before the arrival of the Knights in 1530. It is still the residence of the bishop. This city is situated near the centre of the island, and in clear weather commands a magnificent view of the whole. It is very strongly fortified with large ditches and fine walls, and is nearly as well built as Valetta, though far from being so populous. The cathedral is a very fine structure, and although exceedingly large, is (or was some years ago) entirely hung round with crimson damask, richly laced with gold. The old palace, however, is not much worth the seeing. Above the principal gate of the city is an antique statue of Juno with its ancient drapery, and yet without either head or hands. This figure is inserted in the walls. The city is governed by an officer called the Hahem.

The catacombs near Civita-Vecchia are much spoken of as a great work, extending, according to some accounts, (probably exaggerated) several mi-

viewing the shew from the ramparts, we took a boat and followed the squadron for some time, and did not return till long after sun-set."

miles under ground. It is certain, however, that many persons have been lost by advancing too far in them; the prodigious number of ramifications making it next to impossible to find the way out again. They are so well preserved, being hewn out of a white free stone, quite dry, that they *always* appear as if they were just made. From the smallness of the galleries, where only one person can enter at a time; their uniform arrangement; their roof, which is arched, though cut out of the rock; the chambers of which are seen at various intervals; the plaster which still adheres to many of them; the little niches intended to hold the lamps which enlightened the subterraneous abodes; the regularity of the tombs, mostly placed under square roofs, with a sort of sarcophagus covered over in a pediment etc., it is probable that the catacombs are not mere excavations, the work of nature, but that they were applied to the use of hiding places, where the inhabitants sought refuge, and secreted themselves with their most valuable effects, during the inroads of the Saracens and other nations. They might also be designed as a place of interment for the dead, and a place of religious worship, where the mysteries of christianity might be celebrated

in

in concealment. There are not so many tombs here as in other catacombs, and the large ones appear to have served for interring two bodies; places for two heads, cut out in the stone, are still to be seen. In the largest hall or compartment are two round stones shapel like an oil-mill, the use of which cannot now be ascertained.

At no great distance from the old city there is a small church, dedicated to St. Paul; and just by the church is a statue of the apostle with a viper on his hand; placed, according to tradition, on the very spot where he shook the viper off his hand, without being injured. Adjoining to the church is the celebrated grotto in which they pretend the apostle was imprisoned. His name is also preserved by a fort, and by a bay or harbour for small vessels, where it is said he was shipwrecked.

The great source of water that supplies Valetta, takes its rise at the distance of a mile or two from Civita-Vecchia; and there is an aqueduct composed of several thousand arches, that conveys it from thence to the city. The whole

of

presents to the different courts of Europe, and to the relations of the chevaliers.

The industry of the Maltese in cultivating their little island, is altogether incredible. There is not an inch of ground lost in any part of it; and where nature has not produced soil enough for the purpose of the husbandman, they have brought over ships and boats loaded with it from Africa, and particularly from Sicily, where there is plenty and to spare. The whole island is full of inclosures of free-stone, which are very small and irregularly laid out, according to the inclination of the ground. These the inhabitants say they are obliged to maintain, notwithstanding the uncouth and deformed aspect they exhibit, as otherwise, the rapid floods, to which they are occasionally subject, would carry off the soil. The rains, however, fall here but very seldom.

No spot hardly upon earth presents ground naturally more ungrateful and sterile than that of Malta; and yet the farmer here, in cultivating the soil, is so active, so indefatigable, and so neat, that his poverty has only the appearance of abstinence. The soil of Sicily, on the other hand,

and, is immensely fortunate and fertile, crops f various produce, corn, wine, oil silk, etc. vhich are all mingled together) rapidly succeed- g, or rather treading close upon each other; hile the mountains, highly cultivated, almost their tops, the inclosures, fenced with hedges the Indian fig, or prickly pear, and the sides the roads garnished with a profusion of flowers flowering shrups, exceedingly beautiful, altoether present the most agreeable aspect to the eye at can possibly be imagined (especially in sai- ig along its very rich coast). Still, however, twithstanding these natural advantages, the asants there are poor, dull, and loathsomely rty; and in Syracuse, and other of their ci- s, scarcely a creature is to be seen, and even ose have the appearance of disease and extreme retchedness. The inward and outward cleanli- ss and comfortableness of Malta and its inhabi- nts, contrasted with what is visible in Sicily, so striking in passing from one island to the her, that a stranger would almost be induced imagine them a thousand leagues asunder: in ct, there never were two countries of near each her, which, in every physical and moral point

wood in the island. This wood is situated in a well-watered valley, and tends greatly to relieve the eye, fatigued with the aridity of the surrounding landscape. The falconry at the foot of the valley is a delightful place, and the only wild and rural retreat by which the Maltese can form any analogous idea of the forests of other countries.

The old large orangetrees, which grow thereabouts, are watered by streams which flow from plentiful springs, and diffuse a freshness the more grateful, as water is scarcer and more desirable in that quarter than in other places.

The rest of the island, or what they call the country, scarcely deserves the appellation; for it seems almost as well covered with buildings as the cities and villages: it also appears fortified in a remarkable manner by their large continued white walls, which hold up or incase what little earth is on the island, as well as what is fabricated there; for by grinding small the soft rock and mixing it with what earth they have, filling the bottom with the best of it, and watering the whole, the industrious natives have formed a soil well

ell calculated for cultivating cotton, and the ther produce of their country. Here are also itches of a vast size, with bastions, all cut out f the solid rock, and extending many miles into ie island. These great works, which have been xpedited by their situation, require no other re- air but a small cement applied to the natural revices of the stone.

The dress and ornaments of the Maltese pea- ants, or farmers, are extremely light. They ear long breeches, a blue linen shirt, and a road sash, and leave their arms and feet entirely aked. In the cities, their costume is nearly the ame as in Italy. Their features are as comple- ely Arabian as their language, which last, ho- ever, is rather a kind of dialect of the Arabian, nd is represented by some writers as a rude jar- on, without rules and without orthography: it s also intermixed with some remains of the Phoe- ician, or Carthaginian, the Greek, the Spa- ish, and the Italian. In the towns the Italian is commonly spoken. Their manners still retain the traces of their Arabian conquerors, and their character seems compounded of the characters of the different nations to which they have been suc-

cessively subject. Interested and careful in their bargains, they are scrupulously exact in fulfilling every engagement; by which means commercial intercourse with them is at once safe and easy.

Their women, as in the Levant and among the eastern nations, are exempted from labour of every kind, which is performed by the men, even to the most trifling occupation of houshold work. From a custom prevailing here, that in their marriage contracts the women take care to have a clause inserted, obliging their husbands to conduct them to the different festivals celebrated in the island every year: it seems as if the liberty which they enjoy is extremely restrained. The fair sex here, being limited to the sole department of pleasure, are justly reckoned beautiful; they have as fair a skin and fine complexions as the inhabitants of the north, with all the impassioned expression of the Orientals; they have almost all, large eyes, with long eye-lids, under which love seems to lie in ambush, and though under a burning sky, their beauty, which is neither Grecian nor majestic, but rather languishing and modest, is not the less seducing on that account. The country women are generally

faith-

faithful to their husbands; but the city ladies can no more resist the gold of the bailies, than the love-sick sighs of the youthful knights; and therefore the utmost licentiousness of military celibacy prevails here. Elegance and neatness characterise their dress, furniture etc,, and they shave like the men, but so artfully and dexterously (this voluptuous operation is performed with broken glass), that a stranger must be very near to discover the effect of this practice.

Perhaps Malta was the only country in the world where duelling was authorised by law. They had laid it, however, under such restrictions as greatly to diminish its danger. The duellists are obliged to decide their quarrel in one particular street of the city, and were, moreover obliged, under the most severe penalties, to put their swords, when ordered so to do, by a woman, a priest, or a knight. A cross was always painted on the wall opposite to the spot where a knight had been killed, and between twenty and thirty of these crosses were to be counted there about a dozen years ago. The police, however, was much better regulated here

than in the neighbouring countries, assassinations and robberies being very uncommon.

The only kind of vehicle the island affords, is coaches drawn by one mule each. The horse-races here are of a very singular kind, being performed in the ancient Numidian manner, without either saddle, bridle, whip, or spur; and yet the horses run at full speed, and afford abundance of diversion. They are commonly accustomed to the ground for some weeks before, and although the course is entirely over rocks and pavement, it is very seldom that any accidents are known to take place. They have races of asses and mules, performed in a similar manner, four times every year, with this difference, that the rider is allowed an instrument like a shoemaker's awl, to prick on his courser if he is tardy. The asses here have long been famous for their strength and size, and it appears that the Romans set a high value on the long haired dogs of this island, the species of which is now degenerated. — It is a singular fact, that no venomous creatures are to be found in Malta, and vipers, which have been brought there from Sicily, expired almost instantly on their arrival.

In

In fair weather, one half of Mount Aetna may be clearly discovered from Malta, although the distance is computed at nearly 200 Italian miles. In the great eruptions of that mountain, the whole island is illuminated, and from the reflection in the water, there appears a great track of fire in the sea all the way from Malta to Sicily. The thunder of the mountain is likewise distinctly heard (*a*). The fortifications of Malta, both natural and artificial, are indeed a most stupendous work. Two thirds of its coast (on the other extremity of the island, apposite to the northern

(*a*) During the month of June, or for some weeks, before and after our Midsummer, the weather at Malta is perfectly clear and serene, without a cloud in the hemisphere; the beauty of the setting sun also is much superior to what is observed in Italy, or indeed any other country, and for some time after sunset, the whole of the eastern part of the heavens exhibit a most beautiful appearance, being that of a fine rich deep purple. The western hemisphere is the true yellow glow of Claude Lorrain, so much admired by connoisseurs. This phenomenon very generally takes place at the above season of the year. The weather, however, is not intolerably hot, as the thermometer commonly stands between 75 and 76.

coast of Valetta), are lined with rocks, steep and pointed; and as this rock extends in continuity for several miles, and is absolutely perpendicular from the sea, besides being of an enormous height, Malta may be considered as inaccessible on that side, being so completely fortified by nature, that nothing is left for art to superadd (*a*).

In other places, where the coast is more accessible, it is defended by an infinite number of fortifications. The rock, in many places, has been sloped into the form of a glacis, with strong parapets, intrenchments and batteries running behind it, so as to render a landing, if not altogether impracticable, yet extremely dangerous.

There

(*a*) It is very singular, that on this side there are still the vestiges of several ancient roads, with the tracks of carriages worn deep in the rocks; these roads are terminated by the precipice with the sea beneath, and seem to indicate that this island has in former ages been of much larger extent than it is at present. The convulsion, however, that occasioned its diminution, appears to be much beyond the reach of any history or tradition.

There is one particular kind of ordnance, invented by the Maltese, which excites the amazement of strangers, and is unknown to all the world besides. The rocks here are not only scarped into fortifications, but likewise into fire-engines or artillery to defend those fortifications; being hollowed out in many places into the form of immense mortars. These mortars they fill with cantars of cannon balls, shells, stones, and other deadly materials; and if an enemy's ship should approach with a design to land, they fire the whole into the air: the effect of this tremendous invention must be very great, as it will produce a shower for 2 or 300 yards round, that would quickly sink any vessel, and make a dreadful havock amongst a debarkation of boats. A cantar is about a hundred pound weight; and as the mouths of some of the mortars are six feet wide, they will throw, according to calculation, a hundred cantars each.

In the accessible parts of the coast, there are several commodious harbours, bays, and anchoring grounds, all of which (as already observed) are defended by towers, forts, and other works; but the great or main harbour of Valetta has been

so admirably formed by nature in point of depth, extent, security, and commodiousness, that it seems even beyond the power of art to improve it; it is also so well defended by its situation and by works which have been added to it for more than 2000 years past, that it may be considered as almost impregnable against any attack either by sea or land.

The port, properly speaking, consists of two harbours; that on the S. E. side of the city is the principal one, and by much the most frequented. It runs about two miles into the heart of the island, and is so very deep, and surrounded by such high grounds and fortifications, that the largest ships of war may ride in it, almost without a cable. This beautiful bason is subdivided into five distinct harbours, all equally safe, and each capable of containing an immense number of shipping. The entrance is very narrow, being scarcely a quarter of a mile broad, and is commanded by a strong castle on each side, with batteries that would tear the strongest ship in pieces before she could possibly enter. Besides this, it is fronted by the castle of St. Angelo, where a quadruple battery has been planted, one abo-

above the other, the largest of which is level with the water's edge; the platforms are mounted with about eighty of their heaviest artillery. In several others of the works are similar ranges of batteries; an advantage naturally arising from the rock on which they are constructed, and from which the firing must be attended with the greatest effect. Indeed, the fort of St. Michael (a very well-built place, crossed by two large and elegant streets, with other lesser ones crossing them), and the castle of St. Angelo, (which two fortresses are erected on the point of the two peninsulas, which inclose what is called the *Grand Fort*, or the principal of the five subdivisions of the main harbour), would alone keep in safety the navy of the island, even should an enemy's fleet prove successful in forcing the citadels of St. Elmo and Ricasoli, which defend the entrance.

The harbour on the north side of the city, called Marsa Muscet, although chiefly resorted to for fishing, and as a place of quarantine would, in any other part of the world, be considered as inestimable. It is likewise defended by very strong fortifications, (particularly Fort Manoel, the

the latest and most finished work about Valetta, situated on a peninsula); and in the centre of the bason is an island, on which they have erected a fort and a lazaretto. At the entrance of this harbour, opposite St. Elmo, is the point of Dragut; so named from the vice-roy of Algiers, who landed here during the siege of Malta, under the reign of the Turkish emperor, Solyman, while Valetta was Grand Master.

The city of Valetta is built on a peninsula, between these two posts. Between it and the sea is the celebrated castle of St. Elmo, accounted the chief fortification in the island, here it was where the Turks, under Solyman himself, the same who had driven the knights from the Isle of Rhodes, lost so many men in their famous siege: they could not carry this fortress till the very last knight who defended it was slain. It is now far more impregnable than ever. Beyond Valetta, on the land side, lies what is called the Lower-Town, both it and Valetta being defended by fortifications which appear impregnable; and all of these are, notwithstanding, covered by other works of nearly equal importance, called Florian, from the name of the engineer who con-

constructed them. Their latter fortification, called also the Citadel, is, as well, as St. Elmo, situated between the two ports; and although the front on the land-side is thought to be too extensive, it is reckoned one of the best and most perfect works which the art of defence affords. The access, both to Florain and the Lower Town, is mostly over precipices and steep rocks, besides which, Florian itself is completely overlooked by the city of Valetta, whose batteries effectually prohibit all approach to it. The works of Florian also, on the covered ways, are mined and countermined to a considerable extent; and as this citadel is the only point on which it is possible to direct an attack on Valetta from the land-side, it is easy to conceive what a number of obstacles must be surmounted ere an enemy could effect the reduction of the city: and after all, even if Florian were taken, it would be impossible to keep undisturbed possession of it, on account of its being commanded by Valetta, which must necessarily be besieged.

It is a fortunate circumstance for the Maltese, that their island is difficult of approach, insomuch that (as the Chevalier Folard observed) 10

or

or 12,000 men are sufficient to hinder a descent, although 30,000 would barely suffice to defend the works alone (in the cities and other parts of the territory), which works, daily augmenting, consequently become weaker, and require more troops to defend them.

If a descent be once accomplished, the principal dependance of Malta will be in the works which encompass and defend the port. From what has been already observed, it is evident that nature designed the execution of each of these works; and that nothing has been neglected by art to the world, of such small extent, abounds with so many various works; a thirst for fortification, carried almost to a pitch of extravagance (considering that they could never support a sufficient number of soldiers to maintain them) has constantly pervaded the Grand Masters and the whole order; yet these very works, if left defenceless, would, in case of an attack, only prove so many intrenchments for their enemies. — The whole territory of Malta is surrounded, as it were, with fortifications, mortars, and cannon. Of these last there is a vast number; in one place only, the great circumval-

allation, near Valetta, called La Cotonera from the name of the Grand-Master who built), there are upwards of 1500, of which 500 re of brass; yet the Maltese were continually urchasing or casting new ones. All their ships nd gallies likewise were well supplied with excellent artillery.

Indeed, it must raise the astonishment of a ranger to conceive how this nation has ever been ble to execute such great and noble undertakings, han which nothing can be bolder, or wrought in better style; at once simple and dreadful! hese immense and truly masterly constructions re more like the works of a mighty and power- l people, than of so petty a state. To form, owever, a proper idea of them, and give them ll the admiration they deserve, it is absolutely ecessary to see and observe them on the spot. ll the boasted catacombs of Rome and Naples re trifles compared with the immense excava- ions that have been made in this little island. 'aletta, in particular, is wonderfully strong, oth by nature and art, and has certainly been lanned in the finest situation imaginable, bet- ixt two of the finest harbours in the world,

The artillery also which defends their coast is immense. Although the greater part of the work on the island have been constructed or repaired after the manner of Vauban, there are yet some remaining, which serve to evince the improvement which the art of fortification has undergone during the last 200 years.

The city of Valetta properly so called, with the citadels of Florian and St. Elmo, require no more than about four or five thousand men for their defence. If the Maltese, from various causes, were compelled to abandon their other works for the defence of these places, it would be an easy matter for the enemy, being masters of the island and the sea, to block up the garrison by land, with a body not much superior in number; and by forming entrenchments, supported at each port, and out of the reach of the cannon, would at length force them to surrender, merely for want of provisions.

In these forts there are exceedingly good and spacious magazines hewn in the rocks, sufficient to contain provisions etc., for three years and sheltered from all external annoyance; consequent

quently the surrender of the forts can only depend on the quantity of provisions contained in the magazines.

Besides the cisterns which every inhabitant is obliged to have in his house, there are water-houses cut in the rocks, which, when filled, contain sufficiency of water for three years; it is kept very good, and used at all times. Little advantage would, therefore, be derived from cutting or destroying the aqueduct which from near the other extremity of the island brings water into all the works of Valetta; as the winter rains, being from every where directed to the reservoir, will be found adequate to supply the deficiency.

From the superior excellence of its harbour, and its advantageous situation in the very centre of the Mediterranean, Malta seems as if especially ordained by nature to favour and protect commerce; and accordingly it is, and ever has been, an emporium and place of refreshment for all the European vessels which trade in the Mediterranean. It may, in fact, be considered as the key and bulwark of this sea and of the Levant

and, in the hands of the French, or any other maritime power, would certainly become very formidable. The utmost extent of the island is 12 miles in breadth, 20 in length, and nearly 60 in circumference. The population has been, constantly, increasing, ever since the establishment of the order there to this day; from 10 to 50 or 60, or, as some say, 90,000 souls, the islands of Goza and Cumino included.

Cumino, which is very small, and in sailing by it seems little else than a barren rock, contains some inhabitants, and, like Malta and Goza, produces the most exquisite oranges and melons; and like them is covered with citron-trees, date-trees, vines etc. It derives its name from the commin it produces, which grows apparently upon the very stones, Near it is a small uninhabited rock, called Cuminotto.

Goza (*a*) is the highest of the three islands, being discernible at sea at the distance of thirty mi-

(*a*) Either Malta or Goza is supposed to be the the celebrated island of Calypso, first called *Hyperia*, and af-

niles. Most of the Maltese manufactures of cot-
on (stockings, coverlids, blankets, and other
tuffs) are carried on in this island. The inhabi-
ants are accounted more industrious than those
f Malta, being almost entirely secluded from the
vorld; and they here cultivate the sugar-cane
uccessfully, though not in any considerable quan-
ity. These islands have been famous for many
ges for weaving cotton; as we find that Cicero,
when pleading against Verres, governor of Sicily,
nveighed against him, for having, among other
xtravagancies, procured a robe of cotton to be
nanufactured at Malta, at an exorbitant price,
o present to some favourite female. Goza is about
ne-third as large as Malta; its capital, of the
ame name, is in the centre of the island, al-
hough the castle of Goza is on the sea-side.
Goza is also remarkable for a wall, said to be of
Phoenician or Carthaginian workmanship; for a
quarry of alabaster, similar to that in Asia, and

afterwards *Ogygia*. According to fable, the Phea-
cians, giants of whom Homer speaks, were the first
inhabitants of one or both of these islands. At pre-
sent, however, they contain nothing that resembles
the flattering pictures of them to be found in Homer
and Fenelon.

nufactured here although with little taste or elegance and also for the *fungus* rock. The natives of Goza, as well as the other islands, live principally on fish, fruits, and leguminous plants. The streight between Malta and Goza is about five miles in breadth; nearly in its centre stands the island of Cumino, which thus appears formed, as it were, for the defence of the streight. The breadth of the channel between Sicily and Malta is computed at from 40 to 80 miles, and between Africa and Malta at about 270.

The Phoenicians first settled in these islands, about 1500 years before the christian aera; and their colony here, in the sequel, became very flourishing. Seven or eight centuries afterwards, the Greeks, then masters of Sicily, reduced the island, and gave it the name of Melité, (changed by the Romans to Melitas,) on account of the excellent honey found here in abundance. At the end of about two centuries, the Carthaginians, whom the Greeks had suffered to establish themselves here made themselves masters of it; and they lost it themselves to the Romans, on the destruction of Carthage. On the division of the Roman empire, it fell to the eastern part, and af-

ter-

erwards became alternately the prey of the Goths nd Vandals. Belisarius drove them away in 533. The Saracens conquered it from the Greek empe ors in 870, and lost it about 200 years afterwards to the Norman princes reigning in Sicily t then passed into the hands of the Germans; nd at length became subject, together with the ingdom of Sicily, to the Duke of Anjou, brother of Louis XI. Charles of Anjou yielded it up to the kings of Castile and Arragon, who frequently made a grant of it to their sons or favourites, or borrowed money upon it by way of pledge or mortgage. The inhabitants at length purchased their emancipation from this humiliating servitude, on condition that their island should become an unalienable fief of Sicily. Under this last title, Charles V. became possessor of it; and here he established the religious order of St. John of Jerusalem.

The knights took possession of the island in 1530, under the grand master, *Villiers de L'isle Adam*, (having lost Rhodes a few years before); and remained proprietors, or sovereigns of it, till its late sudden and unexpected surrender to

the French General *Buonaparte*.(a). In testimony of the original concession of this island, the Grand Master was obliged every year to send a falcon to the King of Sicily, or his viceroy; and on every new succession, to swear allegiance to the Sicilian monarch, and to receive from his hands the investiture of these islands.

The Maltese nation has for many ages kept up the spirit for commerce and speculation of its Phoenician origin, together with the same sort of indifference for literature and the fine arts. Of late years, however, they have begun to cultivate the arts with some success; and they have now among them musicians, sculptors, and painters, not devoid of merit. About twenty years ago, one of the grand masters founded a museum, which was to be the property of the order: in this were some pictures and marble basreliefs, (Roman works) found in the country. They have since

(a) The curious reader may find, in the works, of the Abbe de Vertot, and in the Modern Universal History, interesting details, relative to the famous siege in 1563, under Solyman, and the rest of their history.

since added to it a number of specimens of sculpture and medals found here, so that it is now full of curiosities and antiques; and the palace of the grand master abounds with paintings of the most famous Italian masters: his library also contains a number of manuscripts, rare editions, and beautiful designs. There is also a public library here, which is already of some consequence, and was daily increasing by the additions of the private collections of the knights etc. (*a*).

(*a*) Some of the copper coins of the Phoenicians are still to be found here, which represent a female head, and the deities Orus, Isis, and Osiris, upon the reverse. Carthaginian coins have been also found here, with Punic inscriptions. The Romans, when in possession of this island, struck coins with Greek inscriptions on one side, and Latin on the reverse. In the museum are two monuments highly interesting and curious, on account of their antiquity, *viz.* two broken pieces of marble candlesticks, with Phoenician inscriptions upon the pedestals in perfect preservation. They have been translated as follows, by the Abbe Barthelemi:

"Abdassar and Asseremar, sons of Asseremar, son of Abdassar, have made this vow to our lord Melerat,

Section II.

Dominica.

The island of *Dominica* was so named by Christopher Columbus, from the circumstance of its

rat, titular God of Tyre, may he bless them, after having led them astray."

The second inscription is in Greek:

„Dionysius and Serapion, of the city of Tyre, sons of Serapion; to Hercules, surnamed, Archegetes."

These fragments were discovered in the Villa-Abela, at the bottom of the great harbour, where formerly a temple of Hercules stood, of which nothing now remains. — A marble statue of that hero has also been found here, which is highly valued at Malta: it is two feet in height, but has been injuriously handled by the sculptor who retouched it. — In the museum are a great number of vases, lamps, and lachrymatories, which were either Phoenician, or of the posterior ages, as they do not possess the elegance of the Grecian vases. It likewise contains a beautiful, glass vase, found in the island, and exactly resembling those discovered at Pompeii; from

wich

ts being discovered by him on a Sunday (*a*). My account of it will be very brief, for its civil history, like that of *St. Vincent*, is a mere blank, previous to the year 1759, when by conquest it fell under the dominion of *Great Britain*, and was afterwards confirmed to the British crown, by the treaty of peace, concluded at Paris in February 1763.

Notwithstanding that Dominica had, until that time, been considered as a neutral island, many of the subjects of France had established coffee plantations and other settlements, in various parts of the country; and it reflects honour on the British administration, that these people were secured in their possessions, on condition of taking

which it is supposed to be Roman. — Among the Grecian coins, one has been found on the island of Goza itself; representing a head of Diana, with a crescent upon it, and on the reverse a soldier armed with a sword and buckler, in the very onset attack.

(*a*) November 3. 1493. It was the first land, which he discovered in his second voyage, after having been twenty days at sea from the Canaries.

king the oaths of allegiance a small quitrent. The rest of the cultivable lands were ordered to be sold on the same conditions as those of St. Vincent, by commissioners nominated for that purpose, and no less than 94,346 acres (comprehending one half of the island) were accordingly disposed off by auction, in allotments from fifty to one hundred acres yielding the sum of L. 312,092. 11 s. 1 d. sterling money (*a*).

It does not however appear that the purchases thus made by British subjects have answered the expectation of the buyers; for the French inhabitants of Dominica are still more numerous than the English and possess the most valuable coffee plantations in the island, the produce of which has hitherto been found its most important staple. They differ but little, in manners, customs and religion, from the West Indies and their priests have been hitherto appointed by superiors in Martinico; to the government of which island, and

(*a*) No person was allowed to purchase, either in his own name, or in the name of others, in trust for him more than three hundred acres if in Dominica, or five hundred acres if in St. Vincent.

nd to the laws of their own nation they consider hemselves to be amenable.

I AM sorry historical justice obliges me to bserve that the liberal conduct of the British go- ernment towards these people, after they be- ame adopted subjects, did not meet with that rateful return from them, which, for the gene- al interests of mankind, ought to be religiously nanifested on such occasions.

At the commencement of the hopeless and destructive war between Great Britain and her Colonies in North America, the island of Domi- nica was in a flourishing situation. The port of Roseau having been declared a free port by tra- ding vessels from most parts of the foreign West Indies, as well as from America. The French and Spaniards purchased great numbers of Negroes there for the supply of their settlements, together with vast quantities of the merchandize and ma- nufactures of Great Britain; payment for all which was made chiefly in bullion, indigo and cotton,

and

and completed in males and cattle; articles; of prime necessity to the planter (*a*).

Thus the island, though in itself certainly not so fertile as some others of less extent in its neigh bourhood, was becoming very rapidly a colony of considerable importance; but unfortunately it wanted that protection, which alone could give its possessions stability and value.

To those who recollect the frantick rage, with which all the faculties and means of Great Britain were directed towards, and applied in, the subjugation of America, the utter disregard which was manifested by the then administration towards the security of this and the other British islands in the West Indies, may not perhaps be matter of surprise; but it will hereafter be scarcely believed, that the whole regular force allotted, during the height of the war, for the protec-

(*a*) Roseau is still a free-port, but the restrictions and regulations of the late act are so rigid that foreigners are discouraged from resorting to it, and, since some late seizures, consider the law as a snare to invite them to ruin.

ection of Dominica, consisted of no more than ix officers and ninety-four privates! This shaıtful neglect was the more remarkable, as this ıland, from its local situation, between Martiico and Guadaloupe, is the best calculated of all he possessions of Great Britain in that part of he world, for securing to her the dominion of he Charaibean sea. A few ships of war statioıed at Prince Rupert's Bay, would effectually ıtop all intercourse of the French settlements with ıach other; as every vessel is liable to capture by ships cruizing off that bay, and to windward of the island. This indeed was discovered when it was too late.

It is probable that this, and the other circumstances which I have recounted, namely, the growing prosperity of the colony and the criminal inattention of the British Ministry towards its security, had already attracted the vigilant rapaciousness of the French government; but it is asserted, that many of the inhabitants within the colony, who had formerly been subjects of France, scrupled not, on the first intimation that hostilities had been commenced in Europe, in the year 1778, to invite an attack from Marti-

ni-

nico. Proof of this may not perhaps easily be produced, but it is certain that their subsequent conduct gave too much cause for such a suspicion.

On Monday, the 7th of September, in that year, a French armament, consisting of a forty gun ship, three frigates and about thirty sail of armed sloops and schooners, having on board two thousand regular troops, and a lawless banditti of volunteers, about half that number, appeared off the island, under the command of the Marquis de Bouillé governor of Martinico and general of the French Windward Westindian Islands. Part of the troops having soon afterwards landed without opposition the enemy proceeded to the attack of *Fort Cashacrou*, the chief defence of the island, and in which a detachment of the regulars was stationed. This fort was built on a rock, about three hundred feet in perpendicular height, surrounded on three sides by the sea, and was considered so very defensible, that it was supposed a few hundred men, well provided, would maintain it against as many thousands. Great therefore was the astonishment of the English in the town of *Roseau* in perceiving,

by

the French colours flying on it, that this fort d surrendered without resistance, but strange it may seem, the case appeared afterwards to ve been, that some of the French inhabitants d insinuated themselves into the fort a few ghts before, and having intoxicated with liquor e few soldiers, that were there on duty, had ntrived to spike up the cannon.

Having thus made themselves masters of Fort ashacrou, the enemy landed their whole force bout noon, and began their march for the town, hich was defended by Fort Molville, and three ther batteries but unfortunately these batteries ere ill provided, and worse manned. The whole umber of the militia did not exceed one hundred nd twenty; for but few of the French inhabiants thought proper to assemble; and of those hat made their appearance, many withdrew themelves again, and were no more seen, untill he island had surrendered.

The small force however that was collected, haved with that spirit, which gives room to ment, they were not better supported. Three nes was the enemy driven out of Fort Lou-

biere, of which they had possessed themselves
their march, and twice were the colours, whi
they had hoisted thereon, shot away. The
commissary-general, and forty of their soldie
were killed, and Bouillé himself had a very na
row escape, his sword being shot away from l
side (*a*).

But gallantry was unavailing against such s
periority of numbers; for about two thousand
the French having gained possession of the heig
above Roseau, this last circumstance determin
the fate of the island. The bravery of the inh
bitants, however, obtained for them, from the
liberal and noble minded conqueror, very honou
rable terms of capitulation. Besides being permi
ted to march out with all military honours, t
were allowed to retain their arms, their civil
vernment, and the free exercise of their relig
laws, customs, and ordinances; to preserve
administration of justice in the same persons
w

(*a*) General Bouillé himself afterwards affected to
that he lost no man in the attack of Fort Loui
except the commissary general. The fact was
ever as above stated.

whom it was then vested, and to enjoy their possessions, of what nature soever, unmolested; a privilege, which was expressly extended to absent as well as resident proprietors.

De Bouillé thus completed his conquest, departed for Martinico, leaving the Marquis Duchilleau, — a man of a far different character —, commander in chief of Dominica, whose conduct, during four years, that he continued in the island, is said to have been so wantonly oppressive and tyrannical, that we are left to wonder at the patient long suffering and forbearance of the people under his government, in submitting to it for half the time.

His first measure was to disarm the English inhabitants, in direct violation of the capitulation, and he entered into a treaty with the runaway Negroes for their assistance, if wanted. He issued an order, forbidding the English to assemble together more than two in a place, and he commanded the sentinels, to disperse them, if they were found together in greater numbers. He ordered, that no lights should be seen in their houses after nine o' clock at night, and that

no English person should presume to walk th streets after that hour, without a candle and lan thorn. Mr. Robert How, an English merchant and owner of a ship, then in the bay, attemptin to go on board his own vessel after that hour was shot dead in the attempt; and the sentinel who killed him, was raised to a higher station i his regiment, for having thus (as the governo expressed it) done his duty.

So very apprehensive was this governor that the English inhabitants were forming design to retake the island, that every letter of their was opened for his inspection, before it was de livered. And, deeming this measure insufficie to furnish him with the knowledge of their pri vate transactions, he adopted the practice of goin himself in disguise, or employing others, wh better knew the English language, in order t listen at their doors and windows in the night-tim to the conservation, which passed in domesti intercourse.

He repeatedly threatened to set fire to t town of Roseau, in case the island should tatacked; and though it was never attempted

he English forces, yet that town was set fire to as it was believed) by the French soldiers, and here was every reason to suppose, that he governor was privy to it. This supposition was strongly corroborated by his behaviour on the night of that melancholy scene, at which he himself was present the best part of the time, and, t is very confidently asserted, would not allow his soldiers to assist in extinguishing the flames, save only in houses, that belonged to the French nhabitants.

This fire happened the evening of Easter Sunday, 1781, by which upwards of five hundred houses were consumed in a few hours, and a vast quantity of rich merchandize and effects destroyed, to the value of two hundred thousand pounds sterling.

While the wretched inhabitants were thus groaning under domestick despotism, they had no sources from without. Their trade was entirely cut off, in so much, that during five years and three months, the time, that the island of Dominica was in possession of the French, it was not resorted to by any vessels from Old France, nor was any of its produce exported to that

kingdom, but part it was sent in neutral bottoms to the Dutch Island of St. Eustatius, before its capture by Admiral Rodney, and from thence it was exported to England, under the most extravagant expences and loss to the proprietors.

Other parts of their produce were sent in Dutch vessels, which were engaged for the purpose in England, to Rotterdam; and after the breaking out of the war with the Dutch the produce was sent under imperial colours to Ostende, where the sugar sold from six to eight pounds sterling the hogshead.

These accumulated distresses ended in the absolute ruin of many of the planters, and no less than thirty sugar plantations were, in consequence thereof, thrown up and abandoned by the proprietors. At length, however, the day of deliverance arrived, for in the month of January 1783, Dominica was restored to the government of England. The joy, which, on this event, animated the bosom, and enlightened the countenance of every man, whom painful experience under an arbitrary government, had taught to s

right value on the British constitution, may be onceived, but cannot be described. The inhabi- nts were now restored to the full enjoyment of ieir former privileges, under a civil establish- ient, similar to those of the other British colo- ies in the West Indies, which being hereafter) be described at length, it is unnecessary to nlarge upon in this place, except to observe, iat the legislative authority of this island is ve- ted in the commander in chief, a council of welve gentlemen, and an assembly of nineteen iembers (a).

The few observations therefore which follow, oncerning its present state and productions, will ontlude my account.

Dominica contains 186,436 acres of land, and s divided into ten parishes. The town of Roseau is at present the capital of the island, and is si- tuated in the parish of St. George, being about

(a) The governor's salary, exclusive of his fees of office, is 1,300 P. sterling, payable out of the 4 1/2 per cent duties; whether he has any addition from the colonial assembly, I am not informed.

seven leagues from Prince Rupert's bay. It is on a point of land on the S. W. side of the island, which forms two bays, viz. Woodbridge's bay to the north, and Charlotteville bay to the southward.

Roseau is about half a mile in length, from Charlotteville to Roseau river; and mostly two furlongs in breadth, but less in some parts, being of a very irregular figure. It contains not more than five hundred houses, exclusive of the cottages occupied by Negroes. Before its capture by the French, it contained upwards of one thousand

This island is twenty-nine miles in length, and may be reckoned sixteen miles in breadth. It contains many high and rugged mountains, interspersed with fine vallies, and in general they appear to be fertile. Several of the mountains contain unextinguished volcanoes, which frequently discharge vast quantities of burning sulphur. From these mountains also issue springs of hot water, some of which are supposed to possess great virtue in the case of tropical disorders.

In

some places the water is said to be hot enough to coagulate an egg (*a*).

Dominica is well watered, there being upwards of thirty fine rivers in the island, besides a great number of rivulets. The soil, in most of the interior country, is a light brown-coloured mould, and appears to have been washed from the mountains. Towards the sea-coast, and in many of the vallies, it is a deep, black, and rich native earth, and seems well adapted to the cultivation of all the articles of West Indian produce. The under stratum is in some parts a yellow brick clay, in others a stiff terrace, but the land is in most places very stony.

I am afraid, however, that the quantity of fertile soil bears but a very small proportion to

(*a*) In the woods of Dominica are innumerable swarms of bees, which lodge in the trees; and produce great quantities of wax and honey, both of which are equal in goodness to any in Europe. It is precisely the same species of bee as in Europe, and must have been transported thither, the native bee of the West Indies being a smaller species, unprovided with stings, and very different in its manners from the European.

state of Dominica, for great part of which I am indebted to a late publication by Mr. Atwood (a) Nothing now remains but to set forth the particular

(a) See the history of the Island of Dominica, by Mr Thomas Atwood, 1791. Treating of the natural productions of this island, Mr. Atwood gives the following account of an insect, which he calls the vegetable fly. "It is of the appearance and size of a small cockchafer, and buries itself in the ground where it dies; and from its body springs up a small plant, which resembles a young coffee-tree, only that its leaves are smaller. The plant is often overlooked, from the supposition people have of it being no other than a coffee plant, but on examining it properly, the difference is easily distinguished, the head, body, and feet of the insect appearing at the foot, as perfect as when alive." This account is extraordinary but not more surprising than the Rev. Nicholas Collins's description, in the American Philosophical Transactions, of a certain zoophyton in the Ohio country, which (he declares) is alternately vegetable and animal; for having crawled about the woods in its animal state until it grows weary of that mode of existence, it fixes itself in the ground, and becomes a stately plant, with a stem issuing from its mouth." I give these accounts as I find them, without vouching for the veracity of either.

rs and value of its productions, which I shall lopt, as in other cases, from the return of the spective General for the year 1787.

V.

Description of the British Charaibean Islands.

Leeward Charaibean Island Government, comprehending St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, and the Virgin Islands. — Civil History and Geographical Description of each. — Table of Exports from each Island for 1787; and an Account of the Money arising from the Duty of Four and a Half per Cent. Observations concerning their Decline; and a short Account of the Islands of Bermudas and the Bahamas.

The British Leeward Islands, since the year 1672, have constituted one distinct government, the governor being stiled Captain General of the Leeward Charaibean Islands. He visits each occasionally, but his chief seat of residence is Antigua; the government of each, in the absence of

a ship bound to Virginia. From thence he and companions sailed from St. Christopher's, wh they arrived in January 1623, and by the mo of September following had raised a good crop tobacco, which they proposed to make their s ple commodity." It has been shewn in a form chapter, that the first actual establishment Barbadoes, took place the latter end of 1624.

By the generality of historians, who ha treated of the affairs of the West Indies, it asserted that a party of the French, under command of a person of the name of D'Esnamb took possession of one part of this island, on th same day that Mr. Warner landed on the other but the truth is, that the first landing of War ner and his associates happened two years befor the arrival of D'Esnambuc; who, it is admitte by Du Tertre, did not leave France until 162 Unfortunately, the English settlers, in the la ter end of 1623 had their plantations demolished by a dreadful hurricane, which put a sudden sto to their progress. In consequence of this cal mity, Mr. Warner returned to England to im plore succour; and it was on that occasion th he sought and obtained the powerful patrona

an

d support of James Hay, Earl of Carlisle. This bleman caused a ship to be fitted out, laden ith all kinds of necessaries. It was called the ope well; and arrived at St. Christopher's on e 18th of May 1624; and thus he certainly reserved a settlement, which had otherwise died i its infancy. Warner himself did not return to t. Christopher's until the year following. He as then accompanied by a large body of recruits, nd D'Esnambuc arrived about the same time; erhaps the same day. This latter was the cap- in of a French privateer; and, having in an gagement with a Spanish galleon of superior ngth, been very roughly handled, he was ged, after losing several of his men, to seek ge in these islands. He brought with him to Christopher's about thirty hardy veterans, and y were cordially received by the English, who car at this time to have been under some ap- hensions of the Charaibes. Hitherto Warner's t colony had lived on friendly terms with these r savages, by whom they were liberally sup- ed with provisions; but having seized on their ds, the consciousness of deserving retaliation de the planters apprehensive of an attack, en probably none was intended. Du Tertre

this occasion, were so wretchedly supplied with provisions and necessaries, that of five hundred and thirty-two recruits, who sailed from France with Desnambuc, in February 1627, the greater part perished miserably at sea for want of food.

The English received the survivors with compassion and kindness; and for preventing contests in future about their respective limits, the commanders of each nation agreed to divide the whole island pretty equally between their followers. A treaty of partition for this purpose was reduced to writing, and signed, with many formalities, on the third of May 1627, it comprehended also a league defensive and offensive; but this alliance proved of little avail against the Spanish invasion in 1629, the circumstances whereof have elsewhere related. Yet surely, unjustifiable as that attack may be deemed, if the conduct of the new settlers towards the Charaibes was such as Du Tertre relates, we have but little cause to lament, over the miseries which befel them. The mind exults in the chastisement of cruelty, even when the instruments of vengeance are as criminal as the objects of punishment.

It may now be thought that those of the two ations who survived so destructive a storm, had arnt moderation and forbearance in the school adversity; and indeed for some years they ap- ar to have lived on terms of good neighbour- ood with each other; but at length national ri- alry and hereditary animosity were allowed their ll influence, insomuch that, for half a century terwards, this little island exhibited a disgusting ene of internal contention, violence, and blood- ed. It is impossible at this time to pronounce ith certainty, whether the French or the Eng- h were the first aggressors. It is probable that ch nation would lay the blame on the other. e are told that in the first Dutch war, in the ign of Charles II. the French king declaring for e United States, his subjects in St. Christo- er's, disdaining an inglorious neutrality, attacked e English planters, and drove them out of their ssessions, which were afterwards, by the treaty Breda, restored to them. In 1689, in conse- ence of the revolution which had taken place England the preceding year, the French plan- rs in this island, declaring themselves in the terests of the abdicated monarch, attacked and pelled their English neighbours a second time,

laying waste their plantations, and committin such outrages as are unjustifiable among civilize nations, even in a time of open and avowed ho stility. Their conduct on this occasion was deeme so cruel and treacherous, that it was assigned b King William and Queen Mary among the caus which induced them to declare war against th French nation. Even fortune herself, inclining t length to the side of justice, from henceforwa deserted them; for, after they had continue about eight months sole masters of the island, th English under the command of General Codrin ton, returning in great force, not only compel led the French inhabitants to surrender, bu actually transported eighteen hundred of them t Martinico and Hispaniola. It is true, that repa ration was stipulated to be made them by th treaty of Riswick in 1697, but war again breakin out between the two nations in 1702, the Frenc planters derived but little advantage from thi clause in their favour. They had however, in 1705, the gloomy satisfaction to behold many o the English possessions again laid waste by a French armament, which committed such ravages that the British parliament found it necessary t distribute the sum of L. 103,000 among the suf-

fe-

ers, to enable them to re-settle their planta-
ns. Happily, this was the last exertion of na-
onal enmity and civil discord within this little
mmunity; for, at the peace of Utrecht, the
land was ceded wholly to the English, and the
rench possessions publickly sold for the benefit
f the English government. In 1733, L. 80,000
f. the money was appropriated as a marriage por-
on with the Princess Anne, who was betrothed
) the Prince of Orange. Some few of the French
lanters, indeed, who consented to take the oaths,
ere naturalized, and permitted to retain their
states.

Such were the origin and progress of the
British establishment in the Island of St. Christo-
her. The circumstances which attended the French
nvasion in the beginning of 1782, where a gar-
ison of less than one thousand effective men (in-
luding the militia) was attacked by eight thou-
and of the best disciplined troops of France, sup-
orted by a fleet of thirty-two ships of war;
he consequent surrender of the island, after a
nost vigerous and noble defence; and its restora-
ion to Great Britain by the general peace of 1783,
eing within every person's recollection, need not

be related at large in this work; I shall therefore conclude with the following particulars, which I presume are somewhat less familiar to the general reader, and their accuracy may be depended on.

St. Christopher lies in 17° 15′ North latitude, and 63° 17′ West longitude; it is about fourteen leagues in circuit, and contains 43,726 acres of land, of which about 17,000 acres are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and 4,000 to pasturage. As sugar is the only commodity of any account that is raised, except provisions and a little cotton, it is probable, that nearly one half of the whole island is unfit for cultivation. The interior part of the country consists indeed of many rugged precipices, and barren mountains. Of these, the loftiest is Mount-Misery (evidently a decayed volcano) which rises 3,711 feet in perpendicular height from the sea (a).

Na-

(a) There is an immense crater on the top of this mountain, the bottom of which is nearly level, and supposed to contain 50 acres, of which seven are covered with water, the rest are clothed with high grass

Nature, however, has made abundant amends or the sterility of the mountains, by the fertility he has bestowed upon the plains. No part of he West Indies that I have seen possesses even he same species of soil that is found in St. Christopher's. It is in general a dark grey loam, so ight and porous as to be penetrable by the slightst application of the hoe; and I conceive it to be the production of subterraneous fires, the black ferruginous pumice of naturalists, finely incorporated with a pure loam, or virgin mould. The under stratum is gravel, from eight to twelve inches deep. Clay is no where found, except at a considerable height in the mountains.

By what process of nature the soil I have mentioned becomes more especially suited to the production of sugar than any other in the West Indies, it is neither within my province nor ability to explain. The circumstance, however, is

grass and trees, among which the mountain cabbage is very conspicuous. From the crannies or fissures of this crater still flow streams of hot water which are strongly impregnated with sulphur, alum, and vitriolick acid.

unquestionable. Canes, planted in particular spots, have been known to yield 8,000 lbs of Muscovado sugar from a single acre. One gentleman, in a favourable season, made 6,400 lbs. or four hogsheads of sixteen cwt. each per acre, on an average return of his whole crop. It is not however pretended, that the greatest part, or even a very large proportion of the cane land throughout the island, is equally productive. The general average produce for a series of years is 16,000 hogsheads of sixteen cwt. which, as one half only of the whole cane land, or 8,500 acres, is annually cut (the remainder being in young canes) gives nearly two hogsheads of sixteen cwt. per acre for the whole of the land in ripe canes; but even this is a prodigious return, not equalled I imagine by any other sugar country in any part of the globe. In Jamaica, though some of the choicest lands may yield in favaurable years two hogsheads of sixteen cwt. per acre; the cane land which is cut annually, taken altogether, does not yield above a fourth part as much.

I am informed, however, that the planters of St. Christopher's are at a great expence for ma-

nu-

ure; that they never cut ratoon canes (*a*); and although there is no want in the country of prings and rivulets for the support of the inhabitants, their plantations suffer much in dry weather, as the substratum does not long retain noisture (*b*).

This island is divided into nine parishes, and contains four towns and hamlets, viz. Basseterre (the present capital, as it was formerly that of the French, containing about 800 houses), Sandy-Point, Old Road, and Deep Bay. Of these, the two first are ports of entry, established by law. The fortifications consist of Charles-Fort and Brimstone-Hill, both near Sandy-Point; three batteries at Basseterre, one at Fig-Tree Bay, another at Palmeto-Point, and some smaller ones of no great importance.

The

(*a*) Ratoon canes are shoots of old roots, as will be fully explained hereafter.

(*b*) The woods on the mountainous part of this island harbour abundance of a small species of monkey, troops of which frequently come down to devour the canes, and do inconceivable mischief.

The proportion which St. Christopher's contributes, with the other islands, towards an honourable provision for the Governor General, is L. 1,000 currency per annum; which is settled on him by the assembly immediately, on his arrival. He has besides some perquisites, and in time of war they are considerable.

Each island within this government has a separate council, and each of them an assembly, or house of representatives. In St. Christopher's, the council should consist of ten members, but it is seldom that more than seven are present. The house of assembly is composed of twenty four representatives, of whom fifteen make a quorum. The requisite qualification is a freehold of forty acres of land, or a house worth forty pounds a year. Of the electors, the qualification is a freehold of ten pounds per annum.

The Governor of this, and the other islands in the same government, is chancellor by his office, and in St. Christopher's sits alone. Attempts have been made to join some of the council with him, as in Barbadoes; but hitherto without success, the inhabitants choosing rather

to

o submit to the expence and delay of following he chancellor to Antigua, than suffer the inconeniency of having on the chancery bench judges ome of whom it is probable, from their situa-, ion and connections, may be interested in the vent of every suit that may come before them.

In this island, as in Jamaica, the jurisdiction of both the King's Bench and Common Pleas enters in one superior court wherein justice is dministered by a chief justice and four puisne judges. The chief is appointed by the crown, the thers by the governor in the King's name, and hey all hold their commissions during pleasure. The office of chief judge is worth about L. 600 per annum. The emoluments of the assistant judges are trifling.

The present number of white inhabitants is computed at 4,000, and taxes are levied on 26,000 negroes; and there are about three hundred blacks and mulattoes of free condition.

As in the other British islands in the neighbourhood, all the white men from the age of sixteen to sixty are obliged to enlist in the militia, and

the summit of the island excepted, which answer however for the growth of ground provisions such as yams and other esculent vegetables. Th soil is stony; the best is a loose black mould on a clay. In some places, the upper stratum i a stiff clay, which requires labour, but properl divided and pulverised, repays the labour be stowed upon it. The general produce of sug (its only staple production) is one hogshead o sixteen cwt. per acre from all the canes that ar annually cut, which being about 4,000 acres, th return of the whole is an equal number of hogs heads, and this was the average fixed on by th French government in 1782, as a rule for regu lating the taxes. As at St, Christopher's the plan ters seldom cut ratoon canes.

This island, small as it is, is divided into five parishes. It contains a town called Charles-Town, the seat of government and a port of entry, and there are two other shipping places, called Indian-Castle and New-Castle. The principal fortification is at Charles-Town, and is called Carles Fort. The commandant is appointed by the crown, but receives a salary from the island.

The

The government, in the absence of the Go-
rnor-General, is administered by the president
the council. This board is composed of the
esident, and six other members, The house of
embly consists of fifteen representatives; three
each parish. The administration of common
v is under the guidance of a chief justice, and
o assistant judges, and there is an office for
e registry of deeds.

The present number of white inhabitants is
ted to me not to exceed six hundred, while
e negroes amount to about ten thousand; a dis-
portion which necessarily converts all such
hite men as are not exempted by age or decre-
ude, into a well-regulated militia, among
hich there is a troop consisting of fifty horse,
ll mounted and accoutred. English forces, on
e British establishment, they have none.

The English first established themselves in this
and in the year 1628, under the protection and
couragement of Sir Thomas Warner. Among
e different classes of men, who sought to im-
ove their fortunes in St. Christopher's by the
tronage of that enterprising leader, it can

hardly be presumed, that every individual ex
perienced the full gratification of his hopes an
expectations. In all societies, there are many wh
will consider themselves unjustly overlooked a
forgotten. Of the companions of Warner's earli
voyages, it is probable that some would set t
high a value on their services, and of those w
ventured afterwards, many would complain,
their arrival, that the best lands were pre-occ
pied. To soften and temper such discordancy a
disquiet, by giving full employment to the tu
bulent and seditious, seems to have been one
the most important objects of Warner's poli
Motives of this nature induced him, with
doubt, to plant a colony in Nevis at so early
period; and the wisdom and propriety of h
first regulations gave strength and stability to t
settlement.

What Warner began wisely, was happi
completed by his immediate successor Mr. Lak
under whose administration Nevis rose to opulen
and importance. „He was a wise man," sa
Du Tertre, „and feared the Lord." Making th
island the place of his residence, it flurished b
yond example. It is sail, that about the year 16

ossessed four thousand whites: so powerfully mankind invited by the advantages of a mild equitable sistem of government. Will the ler pardon me, if I observe at the same time, few situations in life could have afforded ıter felicity than that of such a governor. Li- g amidst the beauties of an eternal spring, eath a sky serene and unclouded, and in a t inexpressively beautiful (for it is enlivened a variety of the most enchanting prospects in world, in the numerous islands which sur- nd it) but above all, happy in the reflection t he conciliated the differences, administered to necessities, and augmented the comforts of usand of his fellow-creatures, all of whom ked up to him as their common father and tector. If there be pure joy on earth, it must ve existed in the bosom of such a man; while beheld the tribute of love, gratitude, and ap- bation towards him in every countenance, and ıose heart at the same time told him that he erved it.

I am sorry that I must present the rea- with a very different picture, in the ac- nt that I am now to give of Antigua.

Section III.

Antigua.

Antigua is situated about twenty leagues to the eastward of St. Christopher's, and was discovered at the same time with that island, by Columbus himself, who named it, from a church in Seville, Santa Maria de la Antigua. We are informed by Ferdinand Columbus, that the Indian name was Jamaica. It is a singular circumstance that this word, which in the language of the larger islands signified a country abounding in springs, should, in the dialect of the Charaibes, have been applied to an island that has not a single spring or rivulet of fresh water in it.

This inconvenience, without doubt, as it rendered the country uninhabitable to the Charaibes, deterred for some time the European adventurers in the neighbouring islands from attempting a permanent establishment in Antigua, but nature presents few obstacles the avarice or industry of civilized man will not endeavour to surmount. The lands were found to be fertile, and

was discovered that cisterns might be contrived hold rain-water (a).

So early as 1632, a few English families took lands there, and began the cultivation of to- :co. Among these was a son of Sir Thomas arner whose descendants still possess very con- erable property in the island, one of them shton Warner, Esquire) having been, in 1787, esident of the council, and commander in chief the absence of the governor.

But the settlement was nearly strangled in its fancy. In 1666, a French armament from Mar- nico, co-operating with a body of Charaibes, vaded the island, and ravaged the country with e and sword. All the negroes that could be found, ere taken away, and the inhabitants, after be- lding their houses and estates in flames, were undered even to the clothes on their backs and e shoes on their feet, without regard to sex, age.

(a) The water thus preserved its wonderfully light, pure, and wholesome.

Its recovery from this calamity was owi chiefly to the interprising spirit and extensi views of Colonel Codrington, of Barbadoes. Th gentleman removing to Antigua about the year 16 applied his knowledge in sugar-planting with su good effect and success, that others, animated l his example, and assisted by his advice and e couragement, adventured in the same line cultivation. Mr. Codrington was some years afte wards nominated captain-general and command in chief of all the leeward Charaibean island and, deriving from this appointment, the pow of giving greater energy to his benevolent purp ses, had soon the hapiness of beholding the goo effects of his humanity and wisdom, in the flou rishing condition of the several islands under h government.

The prosperity of Antigua was manifested i its extensive population, for when, in the yea 1690, General Codrington commanded on the ex pedition against the French inhabitants of St Christopher's, as hath been related in the histor of that island, Antigua furnished towards it n less than eight hundred effective men: a quota which gives room to estimate the whole num ber

of its white inhabitants at that time, at upwards of five thousand.

Mr. Codrington dying in 1698, was succeeded in his government by his son Christopher; a gentleman eminently distinguished for his attainments in polite literature, and who, treading in the same paths as his illustrious father, gave the people under his government the promise of a long continuance of felicity (*a*). His administration, however, terminated at the end of six years, for in 1704 he was superseded (I know not on what account) by Sir William Mathews; who dying soon after his arrival, the Queen was pleased to appoint to the government of this and the neighbouring islands, Daniel Park, Esq; a man whose tragical end having excited the attention of Europe, and furnished a lesson for history to perpetuate, I shall be excused for entering somewhat at large into his conduct and fortune.

(*a*) He was the author, if I mistake not, of a copy of verses prefixed to Grath's Dispensary, in which is this beautiful triplet:

I read thee over with a lover's eye:
Thou hast no faults, or I no faults can spy,
Thou art all beauty; — or all blindness I.

Mr. Park was a native of Virginia, and was distinguished for his successes at a very early time of life. Having married a lady of fortune in America, his first exploit was to rob his wife of her money, and then desert her.

With this money he came to England, and obtained a return to parliament; but gross bribery being proved against him, he was expelled the house. His next adventure was to debauch the wife of a friend, for which being prosecuted, he quitted England, and made a campaign with the army in Flanders, where he had the fortune to attract the notice, and acquire the patronage, of the Duke of Marlborough. — In 1704, he attended the Duke as one of his aides-de-camp, and as such, on the event of the battle of Hochsted, having been sent by his Grace to England, with intelligence of that important victory, he was rewarded by the Queen with a purse of a thousand guineas, and her picture richly set with diamonds. The year following, the government of the Leeward Islands becoming vacant, Mr. Park, through the interest of his noble patron, was appointed to succeed Sir William Mathews therein, and he arrived at Antigua in July 1706.

As

As he was a native of America, and his interest with the British administration was believed to be considerable, the inhabitants of the Leeward Islands, who were probably unacquainted with his private character, received him with singular respect, and the assembly of Antigua, even contrary to a royal instruction, added a thousand pounds to his yearly income, in order, as it was expressed in the vote, to relieve him from the expence of house-rent, a provision which, I believe, has been continued ever since to his successors in the government.

The return which Mr. Park thought proper to make for this mark of their kindness, was an avowed and unrestrained violation of all decency and principle. He feared neither God nor man; and it was soon observed of him, as it had formerly been of another detestable tyrant, that he spared no man in his anger, nor woman in his lust. One of his first enormities was to debauch the wife of a Mr. Chester, who was factor to the royal African company, and the most considerable merchand in the island. Apprehending that the injured husband might meditate revenge, the worthy governor endeavoured to be beforehand

with him, by adding the crime of murder to that of adultery: for Chester having about this time had the misfortune to kill a person by accident, his excellency, who had raised a common soldier to the office of provost-marshal, brought him to a trial for his life; directing his instrument the provost-marshal, to impanel a jury of certain persons, from whom he doubted not to obtain Chester's conviction; and the execution of this innocent and injured man would undoubtedly have followed, if the evidence in his favour had not proved too powerful to be overborne; so that the jury were compelled to pronounce his acquittal.

Another of his exploits was an attempt to rob the Codrington family of the island of Barbuda (of which they had held, peaceable possession for thirty years) by calling on them to prove their title before himself and his council, a measure which gave every proprietor reason to apprehend that he had no security for his possessions but the governor's forbearance.

He declared that he would suffer no provost-marshal to act, who should not at all times summon such juries as he should direct. He changed the

ie mode of electing members to serve in the assembly, in order to exclude persons he did not ke, and not being able by this measure to prore an assembly to his wish, he refused to call hem together even when the French threatened n invasion.

He entered the house of Mr. Chester, the person before mentioned, with an armed force, and seized several gentlemen (some of them the principal men of the island) who were there met for the purpose of good fellowship, on suspicion that they were concerting against himself; must of whom he sent by his own authority to the common jail, and kept them there without bail or trial.

By these, and a thousand other odious and intemperate proceedings, the whole country became a party against him, and dispatched an agent to England to lay their grievances before the crown, adopting, in the first instance, all moderate and legal means to procure his removal; but from the delays incident to the business, the people lost all temper, and began to consider forbearance as no longer a virtue. More than one

at-

attempt was made on the governor's life, in the last of which he was grievously, but not mortally, wounded. Unhappily the furious and exasperated state of men's minds admitted of no compromise, and the rash impetuous governor was not of a disposition to sosten or conciliate, if occasion had offered.

At length, however, instructions came from the crown, directing Mr. Park to resign his command to the lieutenant-governor, and return to England by the first convenient opportunity, at the same time commissioners were appointed to take examinations on the spot, concerning the complaints which had been urged against his conduct.

It would have been happy if the inhabitants of Antigua had borne their success with moderation; but the triumphant joy which they manifested, on receipt of the Queen's orders, provoked the governor into desperation. He declared that he would continue in the government in spite of the inhabitants, and being informed, that a ship was about to sail for Europe, in which he might conveniently have embarked, he refused to

leave

ave the country. In the meanwhile, to convince ie people that his firmness was unabated, and hat he still considered himself in the rightful xercise of his authority, he issued a proclamaion to dissolve the assembly.

Matters were now coming fast to an issue. The assembly continued sitting notwithstanding he governor's proclamation, and resolved, that having been recalled by his sovereign, his continuance in the government was usurpation and tyranny, and that it was their duty to take charge of the safety and peace of the island. On hearing of this vote, the governor secretly ordered a party of soldiers to surround them; but the assembly having obtained information of his intentions, immediately separated to provide for their personal safety. The ensuing night, and the whole of the following day, were employed in summoning the inhabitants from all parts of the island, to hasten to the capital, properly armed, to protect their representatives. It was given out, however, that the governor's life was not aimed at; all that was intended, was to secure his person, and send him from the island.

On

On Thursday the 7th of December 1710, early in the morning, about five hundred men appeared in arms, in the town of Saint John's, where Colonel Park had been making provision for resistance in case of an attack. He had converted the government house into a garrison, and stationed in it all the regular troops that were in the island. On the approach of the inhabitants however, his courage deserted him. The sight of an injured people, coming forward as one man, with deliberate valour, to execute on his person that punishment which he must have been conscious his enormities well merited, overwhelmed him with confusion and terror. Although he must have been apprized, that his adversaries had proceeded too far to retreat, he now, for the first time, when it was too late, had recourse to concession. He dispatched the provost-marshal with a message, signifying his readiness to meet the assembly at Parham, and to consent to whatever laws they should think proper to pass for the good of the country. He offered at the same time to dismiss his soldiers, provided six of the principal inhabitants would remain with him as hostages for the safety of his person. The speaker of the assembly, and one of the members of the council, unwil-

illing to carry matters to the last extremity, eemed inclined to a compromise, and proposed iemselves as two of the hostages required by the overnor; but the general body of the people, pprehensive that further delay might be fatal to heir cause, called aloud for immediate vengeance, nd instantly marched forward in two divisions.)ne of these, led by Mr. Piggot, a member of the ıssembly, taking possession of an eminence that :ommanded the government house, attacked it with great fury. The fire was briskly returned for a considerable time, but at length the assailants broke into the house. The governor met them with firmness, and shot Piggot dead with his own hand, but received in the same moment, a wound which laid him prostrate. His attendants, seeing him fall, threw down their arms, and the enraged populace, seizing the person of the wretched governor, who was still alive, tore him into a thousand pieces, and scattered his reeking limbs in the street. Besides the governor, an ensign and thirteen private soldiers, who fought in his cause, were killed outright, and a lieutenant and twenty-four privates wounded. Of the people, thirty-two were killed and wounded,

ded, besides Mr. Piggot. The governor's death instantly put an end to this bloody conflict.

Thus perished, in a general insurrection of an insulted and indignant community, a brutal and licentious despot, than whom no state criminal was ever more deservedly punished. He was a monster in wickedness, and being placed by his situation beyond the reach of ordinary restraint it was as lawful to cut him off by every means possible, as it would have been to shoot a wild beast that had broke its limits, and was gorging itself with human blood. „The people of England," says a eminent writer, „heard with astonishment of Park's untimely fate; but the publick were divided in their sentiments; some looking upon his death as an act of rebellion against the crown, and others considering it as a sacrifice to liberty. The flagrancy of the perpetration, and compassion for the man, at last got the better." In the latter assertion however, the writer is clearly mistaken; for the English government, after full investigation, was so thoroughly satisfied of Mr. Park's misconduct, as to issue, much to its honour, a general pardon of all persons concerned in his death, and two of the principal ac-

tors therein were even promoted some time terwards to seats in the council.

From this period I close my account of the il concerns of Antigua no occurrence in its bsequent history of sufficient importance to de- in the reader; what remains therefore is iefly topographical, and I hope will be found rrect.

Antigua is upwards of fifty miles in circum- ence, and contains 59,838 acres of land, of ch about 34,000 are appropriated to the growth ugar, and pasturage annexed; its other prin- l staples are cotton-wool and tobacco; to t extent of cultivation I am not informed; they raise in favourable years great quanti- of provisions.

This island contains two different kinds of ; the one a black mould on a substratum of , which is naturally rich, and when not d by excessive droughts, to which Anti- is particularly subject, very productive. The is a stiff clay on a substratum of marl. It ch less fertile than the former, and abounds

with an inirradicable kind of grass, in such manner, that many estates consisting of that kin of soil, which were once very profitable, are no so impoverished and overgrown with this sort o grass, as either to be converted into pasture lan or to become entirely abandoned. Exclusive o such deserted land, and a small part of t country that is altogether unimprovable, ever part of the island may be said to be und cultivation.

From the circumstances that have been rel ted, it is difficult to furnish an average return o the crops, which vary to so great a degree, tha the quantity of sugar exported from this islan in some years, is five times greater than in other thus in 1779 were shipped 3,382 hogsheads, a 579 tierces; in 1782 the crop was 15,102 ho sheads, and 1,603 tierces; and in the years 17 1773 and 1778, there were no crops of any kind all the canes being destroyed by a long con tinuance of dry weather, and the whole body o the negroes must have perished for want o food, if American vessels with corn and flou had

been at that time, as they now are, denied tance (a).

It seems to me on the whole, that the island progressively decreased both in produce and e population. The last accurate returns to rnment were in 1774. In that year, the e inhabitants of all ages and sexes were 2,590, the enslaved negroes 37,808, and I believe, 17,000 hogsheads of sugar of sixteen cwt. are oned a good saving crop. This, as one-half canes only are cut annually, is about a shead of sugar per acre for each acre that is The produce of 1787 will be given hereafter; I believe it was a year more favourable to igua, in proportion to its extent, than to any er of the British islands in the West Indies.

Antigua is divided into six parishes and ele- districts, and contains six towns and vil-

(a) In the year 1789, there was no fall of rain for seven months; whereby there was not only no crop of sugar, but 5,000 head of horned cattle perished for want of water.

lages. Saint John's (*a*), (the capital) Parham Falmouth, Willoughby Bay, Old Road, and James Fort; of which, the two first are legal ports of entry. — No island, in this part of the West Indies, can boast of so many excellent harbours. Of these, the principal are English harbour and Saint John's, both well fortified, and at the former, the British government has established a royal navy-yard and arsenal, and conveniencies for careening ships of war.

The military establishment generally consists of two regiments of infantry, and two of foot militia. There are likewise a squadron of dragoons, and a battalion of artillery, both raised in the island, and the regulars receive additional pay, as in Jamaica.

It hath been already observed, that the governor or captain-general of the Charaibean islands, although directed by his instructions to

(*a*) The town of Saint John was nearly destroyed by fire on the 17th of August 1769; upwards of nine houses being consumed; besides wharfs, cranes etc.

it, occasionally each island within his governnt, is generally stationary at Antigua: he is ncellor of each island by his office, but comnly holds the court in Antigua, and in hearg and determining causes from the other isds, presides alone. In causes arising in Antia, he is assisted by his council, after the actice of Barbadoes; and, by an act of the asmbly of this island, confirmed by the crown, e president and a certain number of the council ay determine chancery causes during the absence the governor-general. The other courts of is island are a court of king's-bench, a court f common-pleas, and a court of exchequer.

The legislature of Antigua is composed of the ommander in chief, a council of twelve memers, and an assembly of twenty-five; and it is ery much to its honour that it presented the irst example to the sister islands of a melioration f the criminal law respecting negroe slaves, by iving the accused party the benefit of a trial by ury and allowing in the case of capital convicions four days between the time of sentence and execution. And it is still more to the honour of Antigua, that its inhabitants have encouraged in

particular manner, the laudable endeavours
certain pious men, who have undertaken, f
the purest and best motives, to enlighten
minds of the negroes, and lead them into
knowledge of religious truth. In the report of
Lords of the committee of council on the sl
trade, is an account of the labours of the soc
known by the name of the Unitas Fratrum, (c
monly called Moravians) in this truly glori
pursuit, from which it appears that their c
duct in this business displays such sound judgm
breathes such a spirit of genuine christianity, a
has been attended with such eminent success,
to entitle its brethren and missionaries to th
most favourable reception, from every man who
the accidents of fortune have invested with powe
over the poor Africans, and who believes (as
hope every planter believes) that they are h
fellow-creatures, and of equal importance wi
himself in the eyes of an all-seeing and impa
tical governor of the universe. With an abrid
ment of that account, I shall close the subject
my present discussion.

„The church of the united brethren hav
ever since the year 1732, been active in pre
chi

ing the gospel to different heathen nations in any parts of the world; but not with equal success in all places. The method here described, id made use of by the missionaries of the said urch, in leading the negro-slaves in the West idies to the knowledge and practice of christanity, is followed, in all points that are not ical, in all the missions of the brethren.

After many years insuccessful labour, experience has taught them, that the plain testimony oncerning the death and passion of Jesus Christ he Son of God, together with its cause and appy consequences, delivered by a missionary ouched with an experimental sense of it, is the urest way of enlightening the benighted minds of the negroes, in order to lead them afterwards tep by step into all truth: they therefore make it a rule, never to enter into an extensive discussion of the doctrines of God's being an infinite spirit, of the holy trinity, etc. nor to seek to open their understandings in those points, until they believe in Jesus, and that the word of the cross has proved itself the power of God unto salvation, by the true conversion of their hearts. Both in the beginning and progress of their in-

structions, the missionaries endeavour to deliver themselves as plainly and intelligibly to the faculties of their hearers as possible; and the Lord has given his blessing even to the most unlearned, that went forth in reliance upon him, to learn the difficult languages of the negroes, so as to attain to great fluency in them: one great difficulty arises indeed from the new ideas and words necessary to express the divine truths to be introduced into them; but even this has been surmounted through God's grace.

As it is required of all believers, that they prove their faith by their works; the brethren teach, that no habit of sin, in any land or place, nor any prevailing custom whatever, can be admitted as a plea for a behaviour not conformable to the moral law of God, given unto all mankind. Upon the fulfilment of this, the missionaries insist every where. Every thing that is accounted decent and virtuous among christians, is inculcated into the minds of the people. Drunkenness, adultery, whoredom, sorcery, theft, anger and revenge, and all other works of the flesh, as enumearted by our Lord and his Apostles as proceeding from the heart, being plain

proofs

proofs that man is either unconverted, or again fallen into heathenism and idolatry, it follows of course, that anyone guilty of these things is put away from the congregation, and not re-admitted before a true and sincere repentance is apparent, and the offence done away: but it is not sufficient that the believers abstain from open scandal, their private behaviour in their families, and in every occurrence of life, must evidence a thorough change of heart and principles: indeed the believing negroes in Antigua, and in other places where the brethren have missions, are so much under the influence of their masters, and of a variety of circumstances that attend their being slaves, that it may perhaps seem more difficult to effect a change of customs and practice, and to enforce a steady christian conduct in all cases amongst them, than amongst free heathens; and yet it must be owned, to the praise of God, that this is visible at present in many thousand converted negroes.

The missionaries, however, have frequent occasion to see with sorrow, how deeply rooted the habit of sin, and the tendency to excuse it is in the minds of the negroes; who, when un-

converted, are particularly given to an unbounded gratification of every sensual lust; but on this very account it becomes the more needful to watch, and not to suffer the least deviation from the right path, to remain unnoticed in the believers. It has been before observed, that baptism is administered to none, but to such in whom a thorough conversion of heart is already perceivable. As soon as they are considered as candidates for baptism, they are subject to the discipline of the church, by which, if they offend, and private admonition and reproof have not the desired effect, they are excluded from the fellowship of the rest, though they may attend publick service, and every means is still faithfully applied to bring them back. Thus a communicant, in case of an offence given, is not admitted to the Lord's supper. This discipline has, by God's blessing, had so good an effect, that many a believing negro would rather suffer the severest bodily punishment than incur it. If they confess their sins, and heartily repent, they are willingly, and, according to the nature of the offence, either privately, or in the presence of a part or the whole of the congregation, readmitted to the fellowship of the church. The be-

lie-

n Surinam, about	400
till living in the West Indies and Surinam	16,045

nearly as can be ascertained from the latest ounts. "

Section IV.

Montserrat.

Of this little island, neither the extent nor e importance demands a very copious discussion. was discovered at the same time with St. Chri- opher's, and derived its name from a supposed semblance which Columbus perceived in the ce of the country, to a mountain of the same me near Barcelona.

The name was all that was bestowed upon by the Spaniards. Like Nevis, it was first lanted by a small colony from St. Christopher's, tached in 1632 from the adventurers under War-

brethren have to advise him in this particular St. Paul says, „if any brother hath a wife that believeth not, and she be pleased to dwell with him, let him not put her away," 1 Cor. VII, 12, but again he says, „a bishop must be blameless, the husband of one wife;" 2 Tim. III, 2. We read of no further precept in the holy scriptures concerning this subject; the brethren therefore were of opinion, that the missionaries should keep strictly to the following resolutions.

I. That they could not compel a man, who had, before his conversion, taken more than one wife, to put away one or more of them, without her or their consent.

II. But yet, that could not appoint such a man to be a helper or servant in the church; and,

III. That a man who believeth in Christ, if he marry, should take only one wife, in marriage, and that he is bound to keep himself only to that woman, till death parts them.

The

The instances that a man has three wives
e few, all mistresses must of course be put
ay without exception; besides this, the missio-
ries lose no opportunity of inculcating into the
inds of the married people, how to walk in
is state conformable to the rules laid down in
oly writ, and every deviation from them is se-
erely censured. If any baptized man leaves his
ife, and takes another, and takes one or more
ives besides the first, or in case he has had
wo, and one dies, and he should marry another,
e is excluded the fellowship of the church.
Neither can the brethren admit of the heathenish
ustoms in courting a wife, but they expect,
hat in case a believer wish to marry, he do all
things in a decent and christian manner: it is of
course expected that all baptized parents educate
their children in the fear of the Lord, shewing
them a good example. If by a sale of negroes by
auction, or in any other way, wives are torn
from their husbands, or husbands from their wi-
ves, and carried off to distant islands, though the
brethren do not advise, yet they cannot hinder a
regular marriage with another person, especially,
if a family of young children, or other circum-
stances, seem to render an helpmate necessary;

and,

of six members, and the assembly of eight, tw
from each of the four districts into which it
divided, and the proportion which Montser
contributes to the salary of the captain-gener
is L. 400 per annum.

Section V.

Virgin Islands.

Of the Virgin islands I have so few particu
lars to communicate, that I fear the reader w
accuse me of inattention or idleness in my r
searches. I have, however, solicited inform
tion of those who I thought were most likely
afford it; but if my enquiries were not slighte
my expectations were not gratified. Even in
late historical account by Mr. Suckling, the ch
justice of these islands, I find but little of whi
I can avail myself. It furnishes no particula
concerning their extent, their cultivation,
their commerce. It is silent as to the number
heir present English inhabitants. The autor
er

ren misinformed as to the origin of their pre-
nt name; for he supposes that it was bestowed
pon them in 1580, by Sir Francis Drake in
onour of Queen Elizabeth; but the fact is, that
ose islands were named Las Virgines, by Co-
umbus himself, who discovered them in 1493,
id gave them this appellation in allusion to the
ell-known legend in the Romish ritual of the
1,000 virgins.

The Spaniards of those days, however,
ought them unworthy of further notice. At cen-
ury afterwards (1596) they were visited by the
arl of Cumberland, in his way to the attack of
orto-Rico; and the historian of that voyage,
hose narrative is preserved in Hakluyt's col-
ection, calls them „a knot of little islands
holly uninhabited, sandy, barren, and crag-
y." The whole group may comprehend about
orty islands, islots, and keys, and they are di-
ided at present between the English, the Spa-
iards, and Danes. The English hold Tortola
nd Virgin Gorda (a).

(a) This last is likewise called Penniston; and cor-
ruptly Spanish Town. It has two very good harbours,

Josvan Dykes, Guana Isle, Beef and Thatch Island, Anegada, Nichar, Prickly Pear, Camana's, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt Island, Peter's Island and several others of little value. The Danes posses Santa Cruz (*a*), St. Thomas, with about twelv smaller islands dependent thereon, and St. John which last is of importance as having the be harbour of any island to the leeward of Antigua and the Spaniards claim Crab Island, the Gree or Serpent Island, the Tropick Keys, and Grea and Little Passage.

The first possessors of such of these island as now belong to the British government, wer a party of Dutch Bucaniers who fixed themselve at Tortola about the ye r 1648, and built a for there for their protection. In 1666, they wer dri

(*a*) St. Croix, or Santa Cruz, belonged originally t the French, and was sold by them to the Danes in 1733, for the sum of 75,000 l. Its inhabitant are chiefly English, and the lands being exceedingly fertile, the produce of this little island (most o which I believe is smuggled into Great Britain a the produce of Tortola) is very considerable, particularly sugar.

iven out by a stronger party of the same ad-
nturers, who, calling themselves English,
etended to take possession for the crown of
ıgland, and the English monarch, if he did
ıt commission the enterprize, made no scruple
claim the benefit of it; for Tortola and its
pendencies were soon afterwards annexed to
e Leeward Island government, in a commission
anted by King Charles II. to Sir William Sta-
eton, and I believe that the English title has
mained unimpeached from that time to this.

The Dutch had made but little progress in
ıltivating the country when they were expelled
om Tortola; and the chief merit of its subse-
uent improvements was reserved for some Eng-
sh settlers from the little island of Anguilla,
ho, about a century past, embarked with their
milies and settled in the Virgin Islands. Their
ants were few, and their government simple
nd unexpensive. The deputy governor, with a
ouncil nominated from among themselves, exer-
ised both the legislative and judicial authority,
etermining, in a summary manner, without a
ury, all questions between subject and subject;
nd as to taxes, there seem to have been none

laid: when money was absolutely necessary for publick use, it was raised, I believe, by voluntary contribution.

Under such a system, it was impossible that the colony could attain to much importance. It wanted the advantage of English capitals; but credit is sparingly given where payment cannot easily be inforced. The inhabitants therefore, whose numbers in 1756, amounted to 1,263 whites, and 6,121 blacks, reasonably hoped to be put on the same footing with the sister islands, by the establishment of a perfect civil government, and constitutional courts of justice among them; but in this expectation they were not gratified until the year 1773. In that year, they presented an humble petition to the captain-general of the Leeward Island government, requesting his excellency to unite with them in an application to his Majesty, for permission to elect an assembly of representatives out of the freeholders and planters, in order that such assembly, with the governor and council, might frame proper laws for their peace, welfare, and good government; pledging themselves, in that case, to grant to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, an impost of four

r and a half per centum, in specie, upon all
ds and commodities the growth of these is-
ds, similar to that which was paid in the other
ewards Islands.

Their application (thus sweetened) proved
cessful. It was signified to them that his Ma-
ty, fully considering the persons, circumstan-
, and condition of his said Virgin Islands,
d the necessity there was, from the then
te of their culture and inhabitancy, that some
equate and perfect form of civil government
ould be established therein; „and finally trus-
ing that his faithful subjects in his said Virgin
Islands, who should compose the new assembly,
would, as the first act of legislation, cheerfully
make good the engagement of granting to his
Majesty, his heirs and successors, the impost of
four and a half per centum on all the produce
of the Virgin Islands, to be raised and paid in
the same manner as the four and a half per
centum is made payable in the other Leeward
Islands;" did cause his royal pleasure to be
ignified to the governor in chief, that he should
ssue writs in his Majesty's name, for convening
n assembly or house of representatives, who,

together with a council, to be composed o twelve persons, to be appointed by the governo for that purpose, might frame and pass suc laws as should be necessary for the welfare an good government of the said Islands.

Accordingly, on the 30th of November 177 the governor in chief of the Leeward Island in obedience to his Majesty's orders, issued proclamation for convening an assembly or hou of representatives of the Virgin islands, who me on the 1st of February following, and very ho nourably complied with their engagement to th crown; the very first act passed by them bein the grant before mentioned of four and a half pe centum, on the produce of the colony for ever They afterwards passed a grant of L. 400 cur rency per annum, as their proportion toward the salary of the governor-general.

Such was the price at which the Virgin Is lands purchased the establishment of a constitu tional legislature. If it be difficult to reconcile this precedent with the doctrines which have been maintained in the case of Grenada, it may perhaps be said (as I believe the fact was) that the

he inhabitants of these islands were unapprised if the rights which they inherited as British subjects, when they voluntarily proposed to subject themselves and their posterity to the tax in question for permission to enjoy them; and their posterity may perhaps dispute the authority which their forefathers exercised on this occasion.

The chief, and almost the only stable productions of these islands are sugar and cotton, of the quantity of land appropriated to the cultivation of either, I have no account, nor can I venture even to guess, at the quantity of unimproved land which may yet be brought into cultivation: Tortola itself is not more than fifteen miles long, and six miles broad: the exports of 1787 will presently be given, and I have only to add, that they were raised by the labour of about one thousand two hundred whites, and nine thousand blacks.

Having so far treated of the several islands which constitute what is called the Leeward Island Government, as they stand distinct from each other; I close my account, as in former

cases, with an authentick Table of their Returns for 1787; after which, I shall, as proposed offer a few observations on circumstances which are common to them all.

An Account of the Number of Vessels etc. that have cleared outwards from the Islands of St. Christopher's, Montserrat Antigua, Nevis and the Virgin Islands between the 5th January 1787 and the 5th January 1788, together with an account of their Bargoes and the Value thereof.

VI.

Description of the Agriculture and Products of the British Westindian Islands.

Sugar cane. — Known to the ancients. — Conjectures concerning its introduction into Europe.

ope. — Conveyed from Sicily to the Azores, etc. in he 15th century, and from thence to the West ndies. — Evidence to prove that Columbus himself arried it from the Canary Islands to Hispaniola. — ummary of P. Labat's reasoning to demonstrate hat it was found growing spontaneously in the Vest Indies. — Both accounts reconciled. — otanical name and description. — Soils best dapted for its cultivation, and their varieties, escribed. — Use and advantage of the plough. — sual method of holing and planting. — Season roper for planting. — Blast. — Manures. — mprovements suggested.

In treating of the agriculture of the West ndian Islands, the first object that naturally exites attention is the cane which produces their reat staple commodity, sugar; — a plant which, rom its commercial importance and general utility, we may venture to pronounce one of the most valuable in the creation. The ancient name of the cane was Saccharum. This word was corrupted, in monkish Latin, into Zucharum, and afterwards into Zucra. By the Spaniards it was converted into Acucar, from whence Sugar. The plant is a native of the east, and was probably cul-

cultivated in India and Arabia time immemorial. The sweet-cane is mentioned twice in the Old Testament, as an article of merchandize, and there is a passage in Dioscorides which seems to imply, that the art of granulating the juice by evaporation was practised in his time; for he describes sugar as having the appearance of salt, and of being brittle to the teeth,

Salis modo coactum est; dentibus ut sal fragile. Lucan, enumerating the eastern auxiliaries of Pompey, describes a people who used the cane-juice as a common drink,

Quique bibunt tenera dulces ab arundine succos. Lafitau conjectures, however, that the plant itself was unknown in Christendom, until the time of the Croisades. Its cultivation, and the method of expressing and purifying the juice, as practised by the inhabitants of Acra and Tripoli, are described by Albertus Aquensis, a monkish writer, who observes, that the Christian soldiers in the Holy Land frequently derived refreshment and support, in a scarcity of provisions, by sucking the canes. It flourished also in the Morea, and in the Islands of Rhodes and Mal-

falta, and from thence was transported into Sicily; but the time is not precisely ascertained. Latau recites a donation of William, the second ing of Sicily, to the monastery of St. Bennet, f a mill for grinding sugar-canes, with all its ights, members, and appurtenances. This happened in 1166.

The same author, in his account of the ign of Baldwin, relates, that the Crusaders ok eleven camels, laden with sugar; so that must have been made in considerable quanties.

From Sicily, the Spaniards are said to have nveyed the cane to the Azores, Madeira, the nary and Cape-de-verd Islands, soon after ey were discovered in the 16th century; and m some one of those islands it has been suppod to have found its way, at an early period, Brasil and the West Indies; „producing a mmerce (says Lafitau) which has proved more luable than the mines of Peru."

Such is the commonly-received opinion reecting the history of this valuable production.

Her-

Herrera positively asserts, that the sugar-cane was transplanted into Hispaniola from the Canary Islands, in the year 1506, by a Spaniard of the name of Aguilon; but in this instance the respectable historian, however correct in general, is clearly mistaken; it appearing by the testimony of Peter Martyr, in the third Book of his first Decad, written during Columbus's second expedition, which began in 1493, and ended in 1496, that the sugar-cane was, at that period, sufficiently known in Hispaniola.

The fact seems to have been, that Columbus himself carried it thither among other articles and productions which he conveyed from Old Spain and the Canary Islands, in his second voyage. Martyr's account is as follows. — „Ad foetus „procreandos, equas, oves, juvencas; et plura „alia cum sui generis masculis legumina, „triticum, hordeum, et reliqua iis similia, non „solum alimenti, verum etiam seminandi gratia, „praefectus apparat: vites et aliarum nostratium „arborum plantaria, quibus terra illa, caret ad „eam important: nullas enim apud eas insulas „notas arbores invenere praeter pinus palmasque „et eas altissimas, ac mirae duritiei et procerita-

„tis et rectitudinis, propter soli ubertatem; at-
„que etiam ignotos fructus alias plures procreau-
„tes Terram ajunt esse terrarum omnium quas
„ambiunt sidera, uberrimam.“ Although in this passage the sugar-cane is not expressly enumerated, it is evident that it was not considered by Columbus as a native of the country; for he could not possibly have been unacquainted with this production, which grew in great perfection in Valencia, and other parts of Spain; yet he found, it seems, on his arrival, no trees or plants in the newly-discovered country, of which he had any previous knowledge, excepting only the pine and the palm. That the cane was then there, appears from a subsequent passage, in which, speaking of such vegetable productions as the Spaniards had sown or planted in an inclosed garden immediately after their arrival, Martyr has these words, which, combined with the former, are, as I conceive, decisive of the question. — „Melones cucurbitas, cucumeres et alia id genus, in diem sextum et trigesimum carpserunt. Sed nusquam se meliores unquam comedisse ajebant. Haec hortensia, toto anno habent recentia. Cannarum radices ex quarum succo succarum extorqueter; sed non coagulatur succus, cubi-

bitales cannas intra quindecimum etiam diem emiserunt."

On the other hand, there are authors of great learning and industry, who maintain that the sugar-cane is a native both of the islands and the continent of America, within the tropicks. They assert, that it was found growing spontaneously in many parts of the new hemisphere, when first explored by the Spanish invaders. P. Labat, who appears to have considered the question with a laborious attention, is decidedly of this opinion, and he quotes, in support of it, among other authorities, that of Thomas Gage, an Englishman, who went to New-Spain in 1625, and of whom I have had occasion to speak in a former part of this work. Gage's voyage is now before me, and it is certain that he enumerates sugar-canes among the fruits and provisions supplied the crew of his ship by the Charaibes of Guadaloupe. „Now," observes Labat, „it is a fact that the Spaniards had never cultivated an inch of ground in the smaller Antilles. Their ships commonly touched at those islands indeed, for wood and water, and they left swine in the view of supplying with

fresh provisions such of their countrymen
ight call there in future; but it were absurd
ie highest degree to suppose, that they would
t sugar-canes, and put hogs ashore at the
time to destroy them.

„Neither had the Spaniards any motive for
owing this plant on islands which they consi-
d as of no kind of importance, except for
purpose that has been mentioned; and to
ose that the Charaibes might have cultivated,
r their departure, a production of which they
w nothing, betrays a total ignorance of the
an disposition and character."

„But," continues Labat, „we have surer
imony, and such as proves, beyond all con-
liction, that the sugar-cane is the natural of
erica. For, besides the evidence of Francis
nenes, who, in a Treatise on American plants,
nted at Mexico, asserts, that the sugar-cane
ws without cultivation, and to an extraordi-
ry size, on the banks of the river Plate (a),
we

(a) Piso observes, „In provincia Rio de la Plata Cannas Sacchari sponte enasci, adolescereque in arbo-

we are assured by Jean de Lery, a protestant minister, who was chaplain, in 1556, to the Dutch garison in the fort of Coligny, on the river Janeiro, that he himself found sugar-canes in great abundance in many places on the banks of that river, and in situations never visited by the Portuguese Father Hennopen, and other voyagers, bear testimony in like manner to the growth of the cane near the mouth of the Mississippi; and Jean de Laet to its spontaneous production in the Island of St. Vincent. It is not for the plant itself, therefore, but for the secret of making sugar from it, that the West Indies are indebted to the Spaniards and Portuguese; and these to the nations of the east."

Such is the reasoning of Labat; which the learned Lafitau has pronounced incontrovertible, and it is greatly strengthened by recent discoveries, the sugar-cane having been found in many of the islands of the Pacifick Ocean, by our late illustrious navigator Captain Cook.

In

bori proceritatem, atque chrystalla saccharea aestu solis exsudare constat."

In these accounts, however, there is no con-
adiction. The sugar-cane might have grown
ontaneously in many parts of the New World,
d Columbus, unapprized of the circumstance,
ght likewise have carried some of the plants
Hispaniola, and such I believe was the fact.
it be this as it may, the industry with which
e Spanish settlers applied themselves to its cul-
ation, affords a wonderful contrast to the man-
rs of the present inhabitants, it appearing by
e testimony of Oviedo, that no less than thirty
genios, or sugar-mills, were established on
at island so early as 1535.

The botanical name of the sugar-cane is
undo Saccharifera. It is a jointed reed termi-
ting in leaves or blades, whose edges are finely
d sharply serrated. The body of the cane is
ong but brittle, and when ripe of a fine straw
lour, inclinable to yellow; and it contains a
ft pithy substance, which affords a copious sup-
y of juice of a sweetness the least cloying and
ost agreeable in nature. The intermediate dis-
ice between each joint of the cane varies accor-
ng to the nature of the soil, — in general it
from one to three inches in length, and from

half an inch to an inch in diameter. The length of the whole cane depends likewise upon circumstances. In strong lands and lands richly manured, I have seen some that measured twelve feet from the stole to the upper joint. The general height however (the flag part excluded) is from three feet and a half to seven feet, and in very rich lands the stole or root has been known to put forth upwards of one hundred suckers or shoots (*b*).

(*b*) The tops of canes sometimes shoot up in arrows, decorated at the top with a pinnacle, the glumes of which contain a whitish dust, or rather seed; yet these being sowed never vegetate, as I have heard in the West Indian islands; a circumstance which perhaps may be adduced as a proof that the cane is not the spontaneous production of this part of the world. In Abyssinia and other parts of the East it is easily raised from the seed. Vid. Bruce's Travels. Since the first edition of this work was published, Sir Joseph Banks has satisfied me that there are several varieties existing in the cane with which we are wholly unacquainted in the West Indies. I have seen, in his possession, a dried specimen that was brought originally from the South Seas, which, as far

It may be supposed that a plant thus rank ad succulent, requires a strong and deep soil to ring it to perfection, and, as far as my own bservation has extended, I am of opinion that o land can be too rich for that purpose. When ad sugar is made from fat and fertile soils, pro-rly situated, I am inclined to impute the blame, ther to mismanagement in the manufacturer an to the land.

The very best soil however that I have seen heard of, for the production of sugar of the iest quality, and in the largest proportion, is e ashy loam of St. Christopher's, of which an count has been given in the history of that is-nd. Next to that, is the soil which in Jamaica called brick-mold; not as resembling a brick colour, but as containing such a due mixture clay and sand, as is supposed to render it

 well

far as can be judged by its present appearance, is of a far superior sort to the species cultivated in our islands.

It is not only of greater lenght in the whole, but the distance between the joints is nearly twice as great as in the finest canes I ever beheld.

well adapted for the use of the kiln. It is a deep, warm and mellow, hazel earth, easily worked; and though its surface soon grows dry after rain, the under stratum retains a considerable degree of moisture in the driest weather; — with this advantage too, that even in the wettest season, it seldom requires trenching. Plant-canes in this soil (which are those of the first growth) have been known in very fine seasons to yield two tons and a half of sugar per acre (c).

After this, may be reckoned the black mold of several varieties. The best is the deep black earth of Barbadoes, Antigua, and some other of the Windward islands; but there is a species of this mold in Jamaica that is but little, if any thing, inferior to it, which abounds with limestone and flint, on a substratum of soapy marle.

Black

(c) This species of soil abounds very generally in the French part of Hispaniola - which gives that noble island so great a superiority over most of our own sugar colonies. In Jamaica, it is confined to a few parishes only, and in those parishes to particular spots. In some places this sort of land is rather gravelly, but this circumstance, if the seasons are favourable, is of no great disadvantage.

lack mold on clay is more common, but as the old is generally shallow, and the clay stiff and tentive of water, this last sort of land requires reat labour, both in ploughing and trenching, render it profitable. Properly pulverized and anured, it becomes very productive and may e said to be inexhaustible. It were endless to ttempt a minute description of all the other soils hich are found in these islands. There is however a peculiar sort of land on the north side of amaica, chiefly in the parish of Trelawney, that annot be passed over unnoticed, not only on account of its scarcity, but its value; few soils roducing finer sugars, or such (I have been told y sugar refiners) as answer so well in the panin expression, signifying, as I understand it, a reater return of refined sugar than common. The land alluded to is generally of a red colour; the shades of which however vary considerably, from a deep chocolate to a rich scarlet; in some places it approaches to a bright yellow, but it is every where remarkable, when first turned up, for a glossy or shining surface, and if wetted, stains the fingers like paint. I have selected specimens which are hardly distinguishable by the eye or the touch, from the substance called gam-

boge. Earths of various shades of red and yellow, are found indeed in many other parts of the West Indies, but in none of them are observed the same glossy appearance and cohesion as in the soil in question; which appears to me to consist of a native earth or pure loam with a mixture of clay and sand. It is easily worked, and at the same time so tenacious, that a pond dug in this soil in a proper situation, with no other bottom than its own natural texture, holds water like the stiffest clay. It is remarkable, however, that the same degree of ploughing or pulverization which is absolutely necessary to render stiff and clayey lands productive, is here not only unnecessary, but hurtful; for though this soil is deep, it is at the same time far from being heavy; and it is naturally dry. As therefore too much exposure to the scorching influence of a tropical sun, destroys its fertility, the system of husbandry on sugar plantations, in which this soil abounds, is to depend chiefly on what are called ratoon canes (*d*).

Ra-

(*d*) So called from being rejettons or sprouts, rejittons, réttons, rattons; or more probably from a corrupt pronunciation of the Spanish word brotónes, which has the same signification.

observation, should be passive under so pernicious a system. Some gentlemen however of te manage better: their practice is to break up iff and clayey land, by one or two ploughings, irly in the spring, and give it a summer's fallow. In the autumn following, being then mellow and more easily worked, it is holed and lanted by manual labour, after the old method, which shall be presently described. But in truth, he only advantageous system of ploughing in the West Indies, is to confine it to the simple operation of holing, which may certainly be performed with much greater facility and dispatch by the plough than by the hoe, and the relief which, in the case of stiff and dry soils, is thus given to the negroes, exceeds all estimation, in the mind of a humane and provident owner. On this subject I speak from practical knowledge. At a plantation of my own, the greatest part of the land which is annually planted, is neatly and sufficiently laid into cane-holes, by the labour of one able man, three boys, and eight oxen, with the common single-wheeled plough. The ploughshare indeed is somewhat wider than usual, but this is the only difference, and the method of ploughing is the simplest possible. — By returning the plough back

back along the furrow, the turf is alternately thrown to the right and to the left, forming a trench seven inches deep, about two feet and a half wide at the top, and one foot wide at the bottom. A space of eighteen or twenty inches is left between each trench, on which the mould being thrown by the share, the banks are properly formed, and the holing is complete. Thus the land is not exhausted by being too much exposed to the sun; and in this manner a field of twenty acres is holed with one plough, and with great ease, in thirteen days. The plants are afterwards placed in the trench as in the common method, which remains to be described.

The usual mode of holing by manual labour is this. — The quantity of land intended to be planted, being cleared of weeds and other incumbrances, is divided into several plats of certain dimensions, commonly from fifteen to twenty acres each; the spaces between each plat or division are left wide enough for roads, for the conveniency of carting. Each plat is then subdivided, by means of a line and wooden pegs, into small squares of about three feet and a half. Sometimes indeed the squares are a foot larger; but

t this circumstance makes but difference. The groes are then placed in a row in the first line, e negro to a square, and directed to dig out ith their hoes the several squares, commonly to e depth of five or six inches. The mould hich is dug up being formed into a bank at the wer side, the excavation or cane-hole seldom ceeds fifteen inches in width at the bottom, id two feet and a half at the top. The ne-oes then fall back to the next line, and pro-ed as before. Thus the several squares between ch line are formed into a trench of much the me dimensions with that which is made by the lough. An able negro will dig from sixty to ighty of these holes for his day's work of ten ours; but if the land has been previously loughed, and lain fallow, the same negro will lig nearly double the number in the same ime (e).

The

(e) As the negroes work at this business very unequally, according to their different degrees of bodily strength, it is sometimes the practice to put two negroes to a single square; but if the land has not had the previous assistance of the plough, it

The cane-holes or trench being now completed, whether by the plough or by the hoe, and the cuttings selected for planting, which are commonly the tops of the canes that have been ground for sugar (each cutting containing five or six gems) two of them are sufficient for a cane hole of the dimensions described (*f*).

The

it commonly requires the labour of 50 or 60 able negroes for 20 days to hole 20 acres. It is reckoned a tolerable day's work for 40 negroes to hole an acre in the course of a day. In Jamaica, some gentlemen, to ease their own slaves, have this laborious part of the planting business performed by job work. The usual price for holing and planting is from eight to ten pounds currency per acre. The cost of falling and clearing heavy wood land is commonly as much more.

(*f*) It is a maxim with some people to plant thin on poor lands, and thick in rich; but it is a maxim founded in error. They suppose that the richer the soil is, the greater number of plants it will maintain, which is true enough; but they forget that the plant it self will, in such soils, put forth shoots in abundance; most of which, if the lands are not over plan-

These, being placed longitudinally in the tom of the hole, are covered with mould ut two inches deep, the rest of the bank ng intended for future use. In twelve or four-

teen

planted, will come to perfection; whereas from thick planting in rich mould the shoots choke and destroy each other. On the other hand, in soils where the canes will not stock (viz. put out fresh shoots) the overseer must supply the greater number of plants in the first instance, or the produce will be little or nothing. To what has been said in the text concerning the method of holing, it may not be improper to add the following particulars. — A square acre contains 43,560 feet, therefore, to know the exact number of holes which an acre will admit, the rule is, to multiply the length of each hole by the breadth, as thus. Suppose you line four feet one way, and three feet the other, then four multiplied by three, makes twelve square feet, and 43,560 divided by 12, gives 3,630 holes. These are large holes, and if the land is dry and stiff, an able negro will not be able to dig more than 60 such in his day's work. It will require, therefore, in such land just 60 negroes to hole an acre in a day. The richer the land is, the wider jon line, of course the fewer holes to an acre; four feet by four feet gives 2,722 holes.

teen days the young sprouts begin to appear, and as soon as they rise a few inches above the ground, they are, or ought to be, carefully cleared of weeds, and furnished with an addition of mould from the banks.

This is usually performed by the hand. At the end of four or five months, the banks are wholly levelled, and the spaces between the rows carefully hoe-ploughed. Frequent cleanings while the canes are young, are indeed so essentially necessary, that no other merit in an overseer can compensate for want of attention in this particular. — A careful manager will remove at the same time, all the lateral shoots or suckers that spring up after the canes begin to joint, as they seldom come to maturity, and draw nourishment from the original plants.

The properest season, generally speaking, for planting, is unquestionably in the interval between August and the beginning of November. By having the advantage of the autumnal seasons, the young canes become sufficiently luxuriant to shade the ground before the dry weather sets in. Thus the roots are kept cool and the earth moist.

By

this means too, they are ripe for the mill
he beginning of the second year, so as to
le the overseer or manager to finish his crop
ept as to the few canes which are reserved
urnish cuttings or tops for planting) by the
r end of May. Canes planted in and after
ember lose the advantage of the autumnal
s, and it often happens that dry weather
he beginning of the ensuing year retards
r vegetation, until the vernal seasons, or
rains, set in; when they sprout both at the
s and the joints, so that by the time they
cut, the field is loaded with unripe suckers,
ead of sugar-canes. A January plant, how-
r, commonly turns out well; but canes
ated very late in the spring, though they have
benefit of the May rains, seldom answer ex-
tation; for they generally come in unseasona-
, and throw the ensuing crops out of regular
ation. They are therefore frequently cut be-
e they are ripe, or, if the autumnal seasons
in early, are cut in wet weather; which has
obably occasioned them to spring afresh; in
her case the effect is the same the juice is un-
acted; and all the sap being in motion, the
ot is deprived of its natural nourishment, to the

little insects, invisible to the naked eye, whose proper food is the juice of the cane; in search of which they wound the tender blades, and consequently destroy the vessels. Hence the circulation being impoded, the growth of the plant is checked, until it withers or dies in proportion to the degree of the ravage (g).

Hitherto, I have said nothing of a very important branch in the sugar-planting, I mean the method of manuring the lands. The necessity of giving even the best soil occasional assistance is universally admitted, and the usual way of doing it in the West Indies is now to be described.

The manure generally used is a compost formed,

1st,

(g) In some of the Windwards Islands, the cane, in very dry weather, is liable to be destroyed also by a species of grub called the borer. This calamity is fortunately unknown, at least to any extent, in Jamaica; and never having seen it, I can give no certain description of it. I conceive the insect to be the eruca minima e rubro fusca of Sloane. In Tobago they have another destructive insect called the Jumper Fly.

1st. Of the coal and vegetable ashes, drawn the fires of the boiling and still-houses.

2dly. Feculences discharged from the still e, mixed up with rubbish of buildings, white- etc.,

3dly. Refuse, or field-trash, (i. e.) the de- l leaves and stems of the canes; so called in radistinction to cane-trash, reserved for fuel, hereafter to be described.

4thly. Dung, obtained from the horse and e stables, and from moveable pens, or small osures made by posts and rails, occasio- y shifted upon the lands intended to be plan- , and into which the cattle are turned at at.

5thly. Good mould, collected from gullies other waste places, and thrown into the le-pens.

The first, (i. e.) ashes, is commonly suppo- to be a manure of itself, well adapted for d and stiff clays, and in some parts of Ja-

maica, it is the practice, in the fall of the year, to carry it out unmixed, in cart loads, to the land where it is intended to be used. It is left there (or in some spot adjoining) in large heaps until the land is holed, after which a basket full containing commonly from fifteen to twenty pounds, is thrown into each cane-hole, and mixed with the mould at the time the plants are put into the ground. It may be doubted, however, whether ashes, applied in this manner are of much advantage: I have been told, that if the land is opened five years afterwards, they will be found undissolved (*h*). At other times, wain loads of the compost, or dunghill before mentioned, are carried out and used in nearly the same manner as the ashes.

But the chief dependence of the Jamaica planter in manuring his lands, is on the moveable pens, or occasional inclosures before described; not so much for the quantity of dung collected by means of those inclosures, as for the advantage of

(*h*) On wet lands, not easily trenched, ashes may be useful in absorbing superfluous moisture and may therefore sometimes prove a good top dressing.

the urine from the cattle (the best of all manures), and the labour which is saved by this system. I believe, indeed, there are a great many overseers who give their land no aid of any kind, other than that of shifting the cattle from one pen to another, on the spot intended for planting, during three or four months before it is ploughed or holed (*i*).

(*i*) This, however, is by no means sufficient on plantations that have been much worn and exhausted by cultivation, and perhaps there is no branch in the planting business wherein attention and sistematick arrangement, as saving both time and labour, are more necessary than in collecting and preparing large quantities of dung from the sources and materials before described. In spreading the manure thus collected, the common allowance in the Windward Islands, (where this part of husbandry is best understood) is a square foot of dung to each cane-hole; so that by knowing the number of holes in an acre of land, and the number of square feet in a dung-keep, the manure may be proportioned to the ground. Nothing is more easy than to ascertain the number of square feet in a dung-heap. Multiply the length by the breadth, and the produce by the

What has hitherto been said, however, relates solely to the method of preparing lands for plant-canes. Those who trust chiefly to ratoons, find it as necessary to give their cane-fields attention and assistance from the time the canes are cut, as it was before they were planted. It is the advice of Colonel Martin, so soon as the canes are carried to the mill, to cut off, by a sharp hoe, all the heads of the cane-stools, three inches below the surface of the soil, and then fill up the hole with fine mould; by which means, he thinks that all the sprouts rising from below, will derive more nutriment, and grow more equally and vigorously than otherwise. I know not that this advice is adopted in any of the sugar islands. It is the practice, however, in many parts of Jamaica, to spread baskets full of dung round the stools, so soon after the canes have been cut as circumstances will admit, and the

the height. Thus, 30 feet, the length, multiplied by 30 feet, the breadth, gives 900 feet which being again multiplied by four feet (the height) gives 3,600 feet, the full contents. This explanation is added for the use of the plain practical planter, who perhaps has had no great opportunity of studying arithmetical calculation.

he ground has been refreshed by rains. In dry nd scorching weather it would be labour lost. The oung sprouts are, at the same time, cleared of weeds, nd the dung which is spread round them, being co- ered with cane-trash that its virtues may not be ex- aled by the sun, is found at the end of three r four months, to be soaked into and incorpora- d with the mould. At this period the ratoons re again well cleaned, and the spaces between he ranks effectually hoe-ploughed; after which ery little cane is thought requisite until the ca- es are fit for cutting; the ancient practice of rashing ratoons (i. e.) stripping them of their outward leaves, being of late very generally and justly exploded.

Such is the general system of preparing and manuring the lands in Jamaica. I have been told, that more attention is paid to this branch of husbandry, in some of the islands to Windward; but I suspect that there is, in all of them, very great room for improvement, by means of a judicious rotation of crops, and artificial assistance. Why, for instance, are not the manures of lime and sea-sand, which abound in these is-

in a few weeks after the mill is set in action. The labouring horses, oxen, and mules, though almost constantly at work during this season, yet, being indulged with plenty of the green tops of this noble plant, and some of the scummings from the boiling-house, improve more than at any other period of the year. Even the pigs and poultry fatten on the refuse. In short, on a well regulated plantation, under a humane and benevolent director, there is such an appearance during croptime of health, plenty and busy cheerfulness, as to soften, in a great measure, the hardships of slavery, and induce a spectator to hope, when the miseries of life are represented as insupportable, that they are sometimes exaggerated through the medium of fancy (*k*).

The

(*k*) „He" (says honest old Slave the physician) „that" undertakes to argue against sweets in general, takes upon him a very difficult task, for nature seems to have recommended his taste to all sorts of creatures; the birds of the air, the beasts of the field, many reptiles and flies seem to be pleased and delighted with the specifick relish of all sweets, and to distaste its contrary. Now the sugar-cane, or

su-

The great obstacle at this season to the progress of such of the planters as are not happily fur-

sugar, I hold for the lop and highest standard of vegetable sweets." Sugar is obtainable in some degree from most vegetables, and Dr. Rush of Philadelphia, among the many advantages attending the use of it in diet, enumerates the following.

„1st. Sugar affords the greatest quantity of nourishment in a given quantity of matter of any substance in nature. Used alone, it has fastened horses and cattle in St. Domingo for a period of several months, during the time that the exportation of sugar and the importation of grain were suspended, from the want of ships.

„2dly. The plentiful use of sugar in diet is one of the best preventatives that ever has been discovered of the diseases which are produced by worms. Nature seems to have implanted a love for this aliment in all children; as if it were on purpose to defend them from those diseases.

„3dly. The plague has never been known in any country where sugar composes a material part of the diet of the inhabitants.

N.

furnished with the means of grinding their canes by water, is the frequent failure or insufficiency

N. B. Dr. Rush quotes this last observation from Sir John Pringle, and adds his own opinion, that the frequency of malignant fevers of all kinds has been lessened by the use of sugar.

„4thly. In disordess of the breast, sugar is the basis of many agreeable remedies, and it is useful in weaknesses and acrid defluxions upon other parts of the body. The celebrated Dr. Franklin had taken large quantities of black-berry jam for the pain of the stone, and found benefit from it, but discovered, at length, that the medicinal part of the jam resided wholly in the sugar. From half a pint of a syrup prepared by boiling brown sugar in water, and taken just before he went to bed, he declared that he often found the same relief that he did from a dose of opium. „It has been said that sugar injures the teeth, but this opinion does not deserve a serious reflection." Amer. Philos. Trans. vol. 3.

Mr. Hughes, the historian of Barbadoes, observes, that there is a saponaceous quality in cane-juice capable of resolving viscid concretions, to which he attributes, in a great measure, the surprising quick recovery of those sickly negroes who drink freely of it.

their mills; for though a sugar-mill, whe-
r worked by water, wind, or cattle, is a very
ıple contrivance, great force is nevertheless re-
site to make it overcome the resistance which
necessarily meets with.

It consists principally of three upright iron-
ted rollers, or cylinders, from thirty to forty
hes in length, and from twenty to twenty-
e inches in diameter; and the middle one,
which the moving power is applied, turns the
ıer two by means of cogs.

Between these rollers, the canes (being pre-
ously cut short, and tied into bundles) are
ice compressed; for having passed through
e first and second rollars, they are turned round
e middle one by a circular piece of frame-
ork, or screen, called in Jamaica the Dumb-
turner, and forced back through the second and
ird; an operation which squeezes them comple-
ly dry, and sometimes even reduces them to
owder. The cane-juice is received in a leaden
ed, and thence conveyed into a vessel called
ıe Receiver. The refuse, or macerated rind of
ıe cane, (which is called cane-trash, in con-

tra-

tradistinction to fieldtrash, described in the preceding chapter) serves for fuel to boil the liquor (*l*).

The

(*l*) Since the first edition of this work was published, I have obtained the elevation and plan of a sugar mill (several of which have been erected within these few yeary in Jamaica) after a model originally designed by Edward Woollery, Esq. surveyor of the publick works in that island, and I now present my readers with an engraving thereof. — The relative proportions in the size of the different rollers or cylinders, vary from Mr. Woollery's first design; but the great improvement, the addition to the middle roller of a lantern-wheel, with trundles or wallowers, was purely his own. These act as so many friction-wheels, and their utility and importance are best demonstrated by their effect. A cattle or mule-mill on the old model was thought to perform exceedingly well if it passed sufficient canes in an hour to yield from 300 to 350 gallons of juice. — The common return of a millon Mr. Woollery's construction is from 4 to 500 gallons. — I have authority to say, that one of these mills in particular, which is worked with ten mules, produces hourly 500 gallons; at this rate, allowing four hours out of the twenty-four

The juice from the mill ordinarily contains
ght parts of pure water, one part of sugar,
d one part made of gross oil and mucilaginous
m, with a portion of essential oil. The pro-
rtions are taken at a medium; for some juice
s been so rich as to make a hogshead of sugar
m thirteen hundred gallons, and some so wa-
y as to require more than double that quan-
y. By a hogshead I mean sixteen hundred
ight. The richer the juice is, the more free
is found from redundant oil and gum; so that
exact analysis of any one quantity of juice,
would

four for loss of time, the return per diem is 10,000 gallons; being equal to 36 hogsheads of sugar of 16 cwt. for every week during the crop, exclusive of Sundays. — Few water-mills can exceed this. The iron-work of the mill in question, as well as of most of those which have been made on Mr. Woollery's model, was prepared at the foundery of Mr. Tomas Goulding of the Bank Side, Southwark, to whom I owe it in justice to declare, that his work is executed with such truth and accuracy, as reflect the highest credit on his manufactory.

would convey very little knowledge of the contents of any other quantity (*m*).

The above component parts are natural to, and are found in, all cane-juice; besides which the following matters are usually contained in it. Some of the bands or green tops, which serve to tie the canes in bundles, are frequently ground in, and yield a raw acid juice exceedingly disposed to ferment, and render the whole liquor sour.

Some pieces of the trath or ligneous part of the cane; some dirt; and lastly, a substance of some importance, which, as it has no name, I will call the crust. The crust is a thin black coat of matter that surrounds the cane between the joints, beginning at each joint and gradually growing thinner the farther from the joint upwards, till the upper part between the joints appears entirely free from it, and resumes its bright yellow colour. It is frequently thick-

(*m*) A pound of sugar from a gallon of raw liquor is reckoned in Jamaica very good yielding. Sugar chemically analysed, yields phlegm, acid, oil, and spongy glossy charcoal.

ugh to be scaled off by the point of a pen-
fe. It is a fine black powder, that mixes with
clammy exudations perspired from the cane,
is most probably produced by animalcula.
the fairness of the sugar is one of the marks
its goodness, a small quantity of such a sub-
ice must considerably prejudice the com-
lity.

The process for obtaining the sugar is thus
ducted. The juice or liquor runs from the re-
ver to the boiling-house, along a wooden
ter lined with lead. In the boiling-house it
ceived (according to the modern improved sy-
n which almost universally prevails in Jamaica)
) one of the copperpans or cauldrons called
iliers. Of these, there are commonly three;
their dimensions are generally determined by
power of supplying them with liquor. There
water-mills that will grind with great ease
es sufficient for thirty hogsheads of sugar in a
k. On plantations thus happily provided, the
ns of quick boiling are indispensibly requisite,
he cane-liquor will unavoidably become lain-
before it can be exposed to the fire. The

purest cane-juice will not remain twenty minute
in the receiver without fermenting (*n*).

Clarifiers therefore, are sometimes seen o
one thousand gallons each. But as powers of th
ex

(*n*) As cane-juice is so very liable to ferment, it
necessary also that the canes should be ground
soon as possible after they are cut, and great ca
taken to throw aside those which are lainted, whic
may afterward be ground for the still-house.

Perhaps it is not an extravagant hope that t
time will come, when the salt of the cane whi
we call sugar, will be made to chrystallize, by t
action of fire on the juice of the cane in as pure a
transparent a from, as the salt of seawater is fr
quently made to do in these climates, by the acti
of the sun's rays. The brown colour of muscova
sugar, seems to me to be derived chiefly from t
effect of fire, operating in the gummy parts or m
cilage of the raw juice: to destroy or separate whic
in the first clarifier, is the great desideratum.
this could by accomplished, the more watery par
cles might afterwards be evaporateds without injur
the colour of the essential salt, which would th
strike into chrystals nearly transparent.

the vessels, and is not detached without difficulty. I conceive therefore that little more than half the quantity mentioned above, is a better medium proportion, and, in order that less of may be precipitated to the bottom, an inconvenency attending the use of dry lime, Mr. Bouse's method of dissolving it in boiling water, previous to mixing it with the cane juice, appears to me to be highly judicious (*p*).

(*p*) This gentleman (Mr. Bousie) to whom the assembly of Jamaica gave L. 1,000 for his improvements in the art of sugar-boiling, in a paper distributed by him among the members, recommends the use of a vegetable alkali, or ashes of wood calcinated, such as pimento-tree, dumb-cane, ferntree, cashew, or logwood, as affording a better temper than quick-lime, but he was afterwards sensible that sugar formed on the basis of fixed alkaline salts never stands the sea, unless some earth is joined with the salts. Such earth as approaches nearest to that which is the basis of allum, would perhaps be most proper. As sugar on a vegetable alkaline basis, is generally as much superior in colour, as that on lime is in grain; how far a judicious mixture of vegetable alkaline salts and lime, might prove a better temper than, eit-

As the fire encreases in force, and the liquor grows hot, a scum is thrown up, which is formed of the mucilage or gummy matter of the cane, with some of the oil, and such impurities as the mucilage is capable of entangling.

The heat is now suffered gradually to encrease, until it rises to within a few degrees of the heat of boiling water. The liquor must by no means be suffered to boil: it is known to be sufficiently heated when the scum begins to rise in-

either lime or alkaline salts alone, is an enquiry that ought to be pursued. If there were no redundant acid in cane-liquor, lime and any other alkali would be hurtful, as may be shewn by adding a few grains of lime or alkali to a clear solution of refined sugar a precipitation will ensue. In some parts of Jamaica, where the cane-liquor was exceedingly rich, Mr. Bousie made very good sugar without a particle of temper. I have said, that too much temper is perceptible in the sugar, both to the smell and taste; it might be added, and also to the sight. It tinges the liquor first yellow, and if in excess turns it to a dark red. Too much temper likewise prevents the melasses from separating from the sugar when it is potted or put into the hogshead.

to blisters, which break into white froth, and pear in general in about forty minutes. The mper is then applied, and the fire extinguish-; after which, the liquor is suffered to re-ain a full hour, if circumstances will admit, ıdisturbed; during this interval great part of e feculencies and impurities will attract each her, and rise in the scum.

The liquor is now carefully drawn off, ei-ıer by a syphon, which draws up a pure defe-ıted stream through the scum, or by means of cock at the bottom. In either case the scum nks down unbroken as the liquor flows, its te-acity preventing any admixture. The liquor is eceived into a gutter or channel, which conveys t to the evaporating boiler, commonly called the rand copper, and, if originally produced from ood and untainted canes, will now appear al-nost, if not perfectly, transparent (q).

(q) The merit of introducing into Jamaica the clarifiers at present in use, with syphons and dampers, was claimed by Mr. Samuel Sainthill, and an exclusive patent, to secure his claim, was granted to him in 1778 by an act of the assembly.

The advantage of clarifying the liquor in this manner, instead of forcing an immediate ebullition, as practised formerly, is visible to the most inattentive observer. The labour which it saves in scumming is wonderful. Neither can scumming properly cleanse the subject; for when the liquor boils violently, the whole body of it circulates with such rapidity, as to carry down again the very impurities that had come up to the surface, and with a less violent heat would have staid there.

In the grand, or evaporating, copper, which should be large enough to receive the net contents of one of the clarifiers, the liquor is suffered to boil; and as the scum rises, it is continually taken off by large scummers, until the liquor grows finer and somewhat thicker. This labour is continued until, from the scumming and evaporation, the subject is sufficiently reduced in quantity to be contained in the next or second copper, into which it is then laded. The liquor is now nearly of the colour of Madeira wine. In the second copper the boiling and scumming are continued; and if the subject is not so clean as is expected, lime water is thrown into it. This ad-

ldition is intended not merely to give more tem-
er, but also to dilute the liquor, which some-
mes thickens too fast to permit the feculencies
run together and rise in the scum. Liquor is
id to have a good appearance in the second
opper, when the froth in boiling arises in large
ubbles, and is but little discoloured. When,
rom such scumming and evaporation, the liquor
s again sufficiently reduced to be contained in
he third copper, it is laded into it, and soon
o the last copper, which is called the teache.
This arrangement supposes four boilers or cop-
pers, exclusive of the three clarifiers.

In the teache the subject is still further eva-
porated, till it is judged sufficiently boiled to be
removed from the fire. This operation is usually
called striking; i. e. lading the liquor, now ex-
ceedingly thick, into the cooler.

The cooler, of which there are commonly
six, is a shallow wooden vessel, about eleven
inches deep, seven feet in length, and from five
to six feet wide. A cooler of this size holds a
hogshead of sugar. Here the sugar grains, i. e.
as it cools, it runs into a course irregular mass
of

of semiformed crystals, separating itself from the melasses. From the cooler it is carried to the curing-house, where the melasses drains from it (r).

But, before we follow it into the curing-house, it may be proper to notice the rule for judging when the subject is sufficiently evaporated for striking or become fit for being laded from the teache to the cooler. Many of the negro boilers guess solely by the eye (which by long habit they do with great accuracy) judging by the appearance of the grain on the back of the ladle; but the practice most in use is to judge by what is called the touch; i. e. taking up with the thumb a small portion of the hot liquor from the ladle; and, as the heat diminishes, drawing with the forefinger the liquid into a thread. This thread

(r) It may be proper in this place to observe, that, in order to obtain a large-grained sugar, it must be suffered to cool slowly and gradually. If the coolers are too shallow, the grain is injured in a surprising manner. Any person may be convinced of this; by pouring some of the hot syrup, when fit for striking, into a pewter plate. He will immediately find it will have a very small grain.

ıread will suddenly break, and shrink from the ıumb to the suspended finger, in different ngths, according as the liquor is more or less ɔiled. The proper boiling height for strong ıuscovado sugar, is generally determined by a ıread of a quarter of an inch long. It is evident ıat certainly this experiment can be attai-ed only by long habit, and that no verbal pre-epts will furnish any degree of skill in a natter depending wholly on constant prac-ice (s).

I

(s) It is probable that from this practice of trying by the touch (tactio) the vessel called the teache derives its name. A method more certain and scientifick was recommended some years ago to the publick, by my learned friend John Proculus Baker, Esquire, Barrister at Law, in the Island of Jamaica, in a Treatise published by him, in 1775, intituled, An Essay on the Art of making Muscovado Sugar. It is as follows. — ,,Provide a small thin pane of clear crown glass, set in a frame, which I would call a tryer; on this drop two or three drops of the subject, one on the other, and carry your tryer out of the boiling-house into the air. Observe your subject, and more particularly whether it grains freely, and

stick purposes, and was generally known by the name of Lisbon sugar. It is fair, but of a soft texture, and in the West Indies is called clayed sugar; the process is conducted as follows. —

A quantity of sugar from the cooler is put into conical pots or pans, called by the French formes, with the points downwards, having a hole about half an inch in diameter at the bottom, for the melasses to drain through, but which at first is closed with a plug. When the sugar in these pots is cool, and become a fixed body, which is discoverable by the middle of the top falling in (generally about twelve hours from the first potting of the hot sugar) the plug is taken out, and the pot placed over a large jar, intended to receive the syrup or melasses that drains from it. In this state it is left as long as the melasses continues to drop, which it will do from twelve to twenty-four hours, when a stratum of clay is spread on the sugar, and moistened with water, which oozing imperceptibly through the pores of the clay, unites intimately with, and dilutes the melasses, consequently more of it comes away than from sugar cured in the hogshead, and the sugar of course becomes so much the

whiter and purer. The process, according
loane, was first discovered in Brasil, by ac-
nt; „a hen," says he, „having her feet dir-
going over a pot of sugar, it was found
er her tread to be „whiter than elsewhere."
reason assigned why this process is not uni-
ally adopted in the British sugar islands, is
, that the water which dilutes and carries
y the melasses, dissolves and carries with
so much of the sugar, that the difference in
lity does not pay for the difference in quan-
. The French planters probably think other-
e, upwards of four hundred of the plantations
St. Domingo having the necessary apparatus
claying, and actually carrying on the sy-
m (*u*).

Of

u) The loss in weight by claying is about one third, thus a pot of 60 lbs, is reduced to 40 lbs, but if the melasses which is drawn off this practice be reboiled, it will give near 40 per cent, of sugar; so that the real loss is little more than one sixth; but the distillery in that case will suffer for want of the melasses, and on the whole I believe that the usage of the English planters in shipping Muscovado sugar, and distilling the melasses, is more generally profitable than the system of claying.

Of Rum.

Having now furnished the reader with th best account I am able to give of the art o making sugar from the cane-juice, I shall pro ceed to a subsequent process, to which this in valuable plant hath given birth; I mean that extracting from it, by fermentation and distill tion, one of the purest, most fragrant, and s lutary spirits in the world; a process of far gre ter curiosity than the former, and of almo equal importance in point of value, considerin that the spirit procured by its means, is obta ned from the very dregs and feculencies of th plant.

The still-houses on the sugar-plantations i the British West Indies vary greatly in point size and expence, according to the fancy of th proprietor, or the magnitude of the property In general, however, they are built in a sub stantial manner of stone, and are commonly equal in extent to both the boiling and curing houses together. Large stills, by which I mean such as contain from one to three thousand gal lons, have this advantage over small ones; tha they are purchased at first at a less proportionate ex-

expence. A still of two thousand gallons with freight and charges, will cost but little more than one of one thousand five hundred gallons, and is besides worked with but little more fuel. But as it is not every proprietor that has the means of employing stills of that magnitude, I shall consider such as are fitting for a plantation making, communibus annis, two hundred hogsheads of sugar of sixteen hundred weight, and proceed to describe, according to the best of my observation and experience, the mode of conducting such an apparatus on such a property, in making rum to the greatest advantage.

For a plantation of that description, I conceive that two copper stills, the one of one thousand two hundred, and the other of six hundred gallons, wine measure, with proportionate pewter worms, are sufficient. The size of the tanks (or tubs) for containing the cold water in which the worms are immersed, must depend on circumstances: if the advantage can be obtained of a running stream, the water may be kept abundantly cool in a vessel barely large enough to contain the worm. If the plantation has no other dependence than that of pond-water, a

stone tank is infinitely superior to a tub, as being longer in heating, and if it can be made to contain from twenty to thirty thousand gallons, the worms of both the stills may be placed in the same body of water; and kept cool enough for condensing the spirit, by occasional supplies of fresh water.

For working these stills, it is necessary to provide, first, a dunder-cistern, of at least three thousand gallons; secondly, a cistern for the scummings; lastly, twelve fermenting vats or cisterns, each of them of the contents of the largest still, viz. one thousand two hundred gallons. In Jamaica, cisterns are made of plank, fixed in clay; and are universally preferred to vats, or moveable vessels, for the purpose of fermenting. They are not so easily affected by the changes of the weather, nor so liable to leak as vats, and they last much longer. But in the British distilleries, fermenting cisterns are, I believe, unknown. To complete the apparatus, it is necessary to add two or more copper pumps for conveying the liquor from the cisterns, and pumping up the dunder, and also butts or other vessels for securing the spirit when obtained; and

it

it is usual to build a rum-store adjoining the still-house.

The ingredients, or materials, that set the various apparatus I have described into action consist of,

1st. Melasses, or treacle drained from the sugar, as already described.

2dly. Scummings of the hot cane-juice, from the boiling-house; or sometimes raw-cane liquor, from canes expressed for the purpose.

3dly. Lees, or, as it is called in Jamaica, dunder (x).

4thly. Water.

The use of dunder in the making of rum, answers the purpose of yeast in the fermentation of flour. It is the lees or feculencies of former distillations, and some few planters preserve it for use, from one crop to another; but this is a bad practice. Some fermented liquor, therefore, composed of sweets and water alone, ought to be distilled in the first instance, that fresh dunder

(x) From redundar, Spanish-the same as redundans in Latin.

may be obtained. It is a dissolvent menstruum, and certainly occasions the sweets with which it is combined, whether melasses or scummings, to yield a far greater proportion of spirit than can be obtained without its assistance. The water which is added, acts in some degree in the same manner by dilution.

In the Windward Islands the process, according to Colonel Martin, is conducted as follows.

Scummings, one-third.
Lees, or dunder, one-third.
Water, one-third.

When these ingredients are well mixed in the fermenting cisterns, and are pretty cool, the fermentation will rise, in twenty-four hours, to a proper height for admitting the first charge of melasses, of which six gallons (y) for every hundred gallons of the fermenting liquor, is the ge-

(y) This quantity of melasses, added to a third of scummings gives 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of sweets, six gallons of scummings being reckoned equal to one gallon of melasses.

neral proportion to be given at twice, viz. 3 r cent at the first charge, and the other 3 per nt a day or two afterwards, when the liquor in a high state of fermentation; the heat of hich, however, should not in general be suffe-d to exceed from ninety to ninety-four de-rees on Fahrenheit's thermometer (*z*).

When the fermentation falls by easy degrees rom the fifth to the seventh or eight day (*a*), o as then to grow fine, and throw up slowly a ew clear beads or air globules, it is ripe for listillation; and the liquor or wash being con-veyed into the largest still, which must not be filled higher than within eight or ten inches of the brim, lest the head should fly, a steady and regular fire must be kept up until it boils, after which a little fuel will serve. In about two

(*z*) The infusion of hot water will raise, and of cold water abate the fermentation.

(*a*) When the liquor is first set at the beginning of the crop (the house being cold, and the cisterns not saturated) it will not be fit for distillation under ten or twelve days.

hours the vapour or spirit being condensed by the ambient fluid, will force its way through the worm in the shape of a stream, as clear and transparent as crystal; and it is suffered to run until it is no longer inflammable.

The spirit which is thus obtained goes by the appellation of low-wines. To make it rum of the Jamaica proof, it undergoes a second distillation, of which I shall presently speak; but previously thereto, I shall point out some little variation between the practice of the Jamaica distillers and those of the Windward Islands, observable in the first process. This consists chiefly in a more copious use of dunder (*b*).

The

(*b*) As the use of dunder is to dissolve the tenacity of the saccharine matter, it should be proportioned not only to the quantity, but also to the nature of the sweets. Thus, when the sweets in the fermenting cistern consist of melasses alone, as generally happens after the business of sugar-boiling is finished, when no scummings are to be had, a greater proportion of dunder is necessary, because melasses is a body of greater tenacity than cane-liquor, and is rendered so viscous and indurated by

the

The following being a very general, and I elieve, an improved method, in Jamaica, of ompounding the several ingredients, viz.

the action of the fire. as to be unfit for fermentation without the most powerful saline and acid stimulators. For the same reason, at the beginning of the crop, when no melasses is to be had, and the sweets consist of cane-juice or scummings alone, very little dunder is necessary. In such case I should not recommend above 20 per cent at the utmost. Dunder, in a large quantity, certainly injures the flavour, although it may encrease the quantity of the spirit. We are informed by Dr. Shaw, that the distillers in England add many things to the fermenting liquor, or wash, in order to augment the vinosity of the spirit, or give it a particular flavour. He observes, that a little tartar, nitre, or common salt, is sometimes thrown in at the beginning of the operation, or in their stead a little of the vegetable or finer mineral acid. These are thought to be of great use in the fermenting of solutions of treacle, honey, and the like sweet and rich vegetable juices, which contain a small proportion of acid. I have heard, that a similar practice prevails among the distillers in St. Christopher's; some of whom consider an addition of sea-water to the fermenting liquor (in what proportion I cannot say)

as

Dunder one half, or		50 gallons	
Melasses		6 gallons	
Scummings		36 gallons	
Sweets 12 per cent	(equal to 6 gallons more of melasses		42 gallons.
Water		8 gallons	
		100 gallons.	

Of

as a real and great improvement. Shaw recommends the juice of Seville oranges, lemons, and tamarinds, or other very acid fruits, and, above all other things, an aqueous solution of tartar; but I conceive that dunder alone answers every purpose. He likewise recommends to the distiller to introduce into the fermenting cistern a few gallons of the rectified spirit, which he says will come back, with a large addition to the quantity of spirit that would otherwise have arisen from the distillation. As I have tried none of these experiments, I can say nothing in their favour of my own knowledge; but I believe that a small quantity of vegetable ashes, thrown into the rum-still, will be found serviceable. The alkaline salts are supposed to attenuate the spirit and keep back the gross and fetid oil, which the distillers call the saints; but if used in too great a quantity, they may keep back also a proportion of the fine essential oil, on which the flavour of the rum

whol-

Of this mixture (or wash, as it is sometimes ed) one thousand two hundred gallons ought roduce three hundred gallons of low-wines; the still may be twice charged and drawn off ne day. The method of adding all the melas- at once, which is done soon after the fer- itation commences, renders the process safe expeditious; where as by charging the me- es at different times, the fermentation is che- d, and the process delayed.

Let us now complete the process according the Jamaica method. The low-wines obtained above, are drawn off into a bult or vessel, l, as opportunity serves, are conveyed into the

wholly depends. Perhaps the most important object of attention, in the making rum of a good flavour, is cleanliness, for all adventitious or foreign substances destroy or change the peculiar flavour of the spirit. In truth, it should be a constant rule with the manager or distiller to see that the cisterns are scalded. and even cleansed with strong lime-water, each time they are used; not merely on account of the rum, but also because it has frequently happened that the vapour of a foul cistern has instantly killed the first person that has entered it without due precaution.

the second still of six hundred gallons, to undergo a further distillation.

The steam begins to run in about one hour and a half, and will give, in the course of the day, two hundred and twenty gallons, or two puncheons, of oil-proof rum, i. e. of spirit in which olive oil will sink; and thus the manufacture, if it may be so called, is complete. There will remain in the still a considerable quantity of weaker spirit, commonly about seventy gallons which is returned to the lowwine butt. Thus two hundred and twenty gallons of proof rum are, in fact, made from five hundred and thirty gallons of lowwines; or about one hundred and thirteen of rum from one thousand two hundred of wash (c).

By

(c) Proof spirit of any kind weighs seven pounds twelve ounces per gallon. According to the English hydrostatical table, the cubic inch of proof spirit weighs 9. p. wt. 19. 73 gr. troy. or 8. 62. dr. avoir du pois. But it has been found that a cubic inch of good brandy is 10 grains heavier in winter than in summer, and that 32 gallons of spirits in winter will make 33 in summer.

By means of the apparatus and process which
e thus described, the Jamaica distiller may
eekly; working only by day-light (a neces-
precaution in this employment) and at a
expence of labour and fuel, twelve pun-
ıs of rum, containing each one hundred
ten gallons of the Jamaica standard. The
ortion of the whole rum to the crop of su-
is commonly estimated in Jamaica as three
ur. Thus a plantation of the above descrip-
is supposed to supply annually one hundred
fifty puncheons of rum of one hundred and
gallons each; or eighty-two gallons of Ja-
a proof to each hogshead of sugar; — and
return I believe is sometimes fairly made
ı canes planted in rich and moist lands; but
a general estimate, I think it too great an
vancé, and that two hundred gallons of rum
three hogsheads of sugar, which is in the
ortion of about two-thirds rum to the crop
ugar, is nearer the truth (d).

The

f) This will be better understood by attending to the following particulars. — The general supply of scummings to the still-house is seven gallons out of

eve-

spirit, what is lost in quantity: and there are managers who make it a rule to return the scummings to the clarifiers, instead of sending them to the still-house. This last mentioned practice deduces the crop of rum more than one third; but is supposed to yield in sugar more than is lost in rum; and if the price of sugar is very high, and that of rum very low, it may be prudent to adopt this method.

Capital necessary in the settlement or purchase of a sugar plantation of a given extent. — The lands, buildings, and stock separately considered. — Particulars and cost. — Gross returns from the property. — Annual Disbursements. — Net profits. — Various contingent charges not taken into the account. — Difference not commonly attended to, in the mode of estimating the profits of an English estate, and one in the West Indies. — Insurance of West India estates in time of war, and other occasional deductions. — The question, why the cultivation of the Sugar Islands has encreased, under so many discouragements, considered and discussed.

lantation consists of three great
nds, the Buildings, and the Stock;
proceed to discriminate their relative
nd value, it may be proper to ob-
e business of sugar planting is a
re in which the man that engages,
ply. — There is no medium,
the possibility of retreat. A Bri-
leman, who is content to jog on
the moderate profits of his own
will startle to hear that it requi-
no less than thirty thousand
to embark in this employment
ect of advantage. To elucidate
must be understood that the an-
of a small or moderate planta-
arly equal to those of an estate
magnitude. A property, for
annually one hundred hogs-
teen cwt. has occasion for si-
, and for buildings and uten-
me extent and number as a
rom two to three hundred
rum in proportion. In
mean either money, or a
redit, there is this
es-

essential difference attending loans obtained on landed estates in Great Britain, and those which are advanced in the credit of West Indian plantations; that an English mortgage is a marketable security, which a West Indian mortgage is not. In England, if a mortgage calls for his money, other persons are ready to advance it: now this seldom happens in regard to property in the West Indies. The credit obtained by the sugar-planter is commonly given by men in trade, on the prospect of speedy returns and considerable advantage, but as men in trade seldom find it convenient to place money out of their reach for any length of time, the credit which they give is oftentimes, suddenly withdrawn, and the ill-fated planter compelled, on this account, to sell his property at much less than half its first cost. The credit therefore of which I speak, considered as a capital, must not only be extensive, but permanent.

Having premised thus much, the application of which will hereafter be seen, I shall employ my present enquiries in ascertaining the fair and well-established prices at which a sugar estate may at this time be purchased or created, and the

ıe profits which may honestly and reasonably
e expected from a given capital so employed;
ıunding my estimate on a plantation producing,
ıe year with another, two hundred hogsheads
sugar of sixteen cwt. and one hundred and
ıirty puncheons of rum of one hundred and ten
ıllons each an estate of less magnitude, I con-
ive, for the reasons before given, to be com-
aratively a losing concern. Afterwards I shall
ıdeavour to account for the eagerness which has
een shewn by many persons to adventure in
ıis line of cultivation. — I begin then with the

Lands.

On a survey of the general run of the sugar
ıtates in Jamaica, it is found that the land in
ımes commonly constitutes one-third of the
lantation; another third is appropriated to pastu-
ıge and the cultivation of provisions, such as
lantains (a hearty and wholesome food), eddoes,
ams, potatoes, cassada, corn, and other vege-
ible esculents peculiar to the country and cli-
ıate; and which, with salted fish, supplied the
legroes weekly, and small stock, as pigs and
oultry, of their own raising, make their chief
upport, and in general it is ample. The remain-

ing third is reserved in native woods, for the purpose of furnishing timbers for repairing the various buildings, and supplying fire-wood for the boiling and distilling-houses, in addition to the cane-trash, and for burning lime and bricks.—As therefore a plantation yielding, on an average, two hundred hogsheads of sugar annually requires, as I conceive, not less than three hundred acres to be planted in canes, the whole extent of such a property must be reckoned at nine hundred acres I am persuaded that the sugar plantations in Jamaica making those returns commonly exceed, rather than fall short of, this estimate; not, as hath been ignorantly asserted, from a fond and avaricious propensity in the proprietors to engross more land than is necessary; but because, from the nature of the soil and rugged surface of the country, the lands vary greatly in quality, and it is seldom that even three hundred acres of soil in contiguity, fit for production of sugar, can be procured. A purchaser therefore must take the bad with the good. Nevertheless, as it is my intention to give as precise an idea as I can of the profits to be made in the sugar-planting business, under the most favourable circumstances, I will allow no-

othing for a dead capital vested in unproductive oodland, but six on six hundred acres, as sufcient for all the purposes that have been mentioed, appropriating one-half of the whole, inead of one-third, to the culture of the cane.

The price of woodland in Jamaica depends iefly on its situation. In seasonable parts of ie country, and in the vicinity of the sea, I nceive it would be difficult to purchase a quanty of a sugar land sufficient for a good estate, nless at a very high price. On the north side, a fertile and seasonable parish, I have lately nown a tract of eight hundred acres, with a ne river running through it, sell for ten pounds rrency per acre, but it was at the distance of n miles from the sea; and the purchaser had a ew and difficult road to make for three miles of ie way. Such another territory, without the inconveniencies to which this was subject, would, lands sell in Jamaica, be well worth, and sily obtain, fourteen pounds currency; or ten ounds sterling per acre. Six hundred acres at is price is L. 8,400 currency. The cost of earing one half, and planting it in canes, inluding four cleanings, would be L. 12 currency

per acre, or L. 3,600. Clearing and planting 100 acres in provisions would be L. 7 an acre, or L. 700, the same for clearing and planting 100 acres in Guiney grass. Inclosing and fencing the whole would cost, on a moderate estimate, L. 700 more. — Total L. 14,100 currency, being equal to L. 10,071 sterling.

Buildings.

The buildings which will be found necessary on a plantation of the magnitude described are,

1st. A water-will, (if water can be obtained) the cost of which, considering that a great extent of stone guttering is commonly requisite, may be stated, on a very low estimate, at L. 1000 sterling. In case no water-mill can be erected, I do not conceive that a single mill, whether worked by cattle, mules, or wind, is sufficient to take off the crop in due time, a most important object, on which the future success of the plantation

Jamaica Currency

de-

depends. I allow therefore for a wind-mill and one cattle-mill, or for two cattle-mills without a wind-mill a sum equal to the cost of a water-mill; or - - - 1,400

2d, A boiling-house, 45 by 22 feet, to contain 3 copper clarifiers, of 350 gallons each, and 4 other pans or boilers, including the cost of the same, and other utensils 1,000

3d. A curing-house, adjoining to the boiling-house, calculated to hold one half the crop, with strong joists of solid timbers instead of a floor, having a terrassed or boarded platform underneath, leading to a melasses cistern, lined with terras, sufficient to contain 6,000 gallons - 800

4th. A distilling-house, 70 feet by 30; the distillery part to contain 2 stills of 1,200 and 600 gallons, with worms proportionate: also a stone tank or cistern, to hold 30,000 gallons of water; the fermenting part to contain

years previous to 1791, may be reckoned t
follows:

	Sterli
200 Hogsheads of sugar, at L. 15 sterling per hogshead	3,00
130 Puncheons of rum, at L. 10 sterling per puncheon	1,30
Gross Returns	L. 4,30

But the reader is not to imagine that all this or even the sugar alone, is so much clear profit The annual disbursements are first to be deducted and very heavy they are, nor is any opinion more erroneous than that which supposes they are provided for by the rum. If such indeed were the fact, the capital would yield precisely on annual interest of ten per cent; but a reference to the several items, which I have particularized in a note (*e*), will demonstrate the fallacy o thi

(*e*) Annual Supplies
from Great Britain and Ireland.
1st. Negro Clothing; viz.
1,500 Yards of Oznaburgh cloth, or Germanlinen.
650 Vards of blue bays, or pennistones, for warm frock for each negro.

55

is too common mode of calculation. They mount, at a very moderate estimate, (including freight,

550 Yards of striped linseys for the women.
250 Yards of coarse check for shirts for the boilers, tradesmen, domesticks. and children.
3 Dozen of coarse blankets for lying-in women, and sick negroes.
18 Dozen of coarse hats.

2d. Tools.

For the carpenters and coopers, to the amount of 25 sterling, including 2 or 3 dozen of falling axes.

3d. Miscellaneous Articles.

160,000 Nails of different sizes.
2,500 Puncheon rivets.
6 Cattle chains
6 Dozen of hoes.
6 Dozen of bills.
20 Dozen of small clasp knives for the negroes.
4 Dozen of ox bows.
50 Bundles of iron hoops.
2 Sets of puncheon truss hoops.
2 Sets of hogshead ditto.
80 Gallons of train oil for lamps.
2 Barrels of tar.
2 Boxes of short tobacco pipes for the negroes.
180 Bundles of wood hoops.

freight, charges, and merchants commission and adding a proportional part of the cost of many expensive articles, such as coppers, stills, wain-tyre, gratingbars, etc. which would perhaps be wanted once in five years) to the sum of L. 850 sterling. To this sum are to be added the following very heavy.

Char

2 Sheets of lead.
6 Large copper ladles } for the boilers.
6 Ditto skimmers. }
8 Dozen of small iron pots for the negroes.
2 Puncheons of Bristol lime for temper.
4 Grindstones.

Provisions, etc. chiefly from Ireland.

80 Barrels of herrings, or salted cod equal thereto.
6 Barrels of salted beef.
2 Barrels of salted pork.
4 Firkins of salted butter.
2 Boxes of soap.
2 Boxes of candles.
2 Hogsheads of salt.
6 Barrels of flour.
6 Kegs of pease.
3 Jugs of greats.

Charges within the Island; viz.

	Currency
Overseer's or manager's salary	200
Distiller's ditto	70
Two other white servants, L. 60 each	120
A white carpenter's wages	100
Maintenance of five white servants, exclusive of their allowance of salted provisions, L. 40 each	200
Medical care of the negroes, (at 65 per annum for each negro) and extra cases, which are paid for separately	100
Millwright's, coppersmith's, plumber's, and smith's bills, annually	250
Colonial taxes, publick and parochial	200
Annual supply of mules and steers	300
Wharfage and storeage of goods landed and shipped	100
American staves and heading, for hogsheads and puncheons	150
A variety of small occasional supplies of different kinds, supposed	50
Equal to L. 1,300 sterling; being in Currency	L. 1,840

The

The total amount, therefore, of the contingent charges of all kinds, is L. 2,15 ling, which is precisely one-half the gro turns; leaving the other moiety, or L. sterling, and no more, clear profit to the ter, being seven per cent on his capital, a 50 over, without charging, however, a sh for making good the decrease of the negroes for the wear and tear of the buildings, or ma any allowance for dead capital, and suppo too, that the proprietor resides on the spot, if he is absent, he is subject, in Jamaica, to annual tax of six pounds per cent. On the g value of his sugar and rum, for legal commi sions to his agent. With these, and other dra backs (to say nothing of the devastations wh are sometimes occasioned by fires and hurricane destroying in a few hours the labour of years) is not wonderful that the profits should frequent dwindle to nothing; or rather that a sugar estat with all its boasted advantages, should sometime prove a mill-stone about the neck of its unfortunate proprietor, which is dragging him to destruction (f)

Ad-

(f) In Jamaica, the usal mode of calculating, in a general way, the average profits of a sugar estate

Admitting even that his prudence, or good tune, may be such as to exempt him from st of the losses and calamities that have been merated, it must nevertheless be remembered, t the sugar planter is at once both landlord l tenant on his property. In contrasting the ofits of a West Indian plantation with those of anded estate in Great Britain, this circumstance commonly overlooked; yet nothing is more tain than that an English proprietor, in stading income which he receives from his capital, ludes not in his estimate the profits made by tenants. These constitute a distinct object, l are usually reckoned equal to the clear anal rent which is paid to the proprietor. Thus farm in England, producing an income of $3\frac{1}{2}$ r cent to the owner, is in fact proportionably ual to a sugar plantation yielding double the ofit to the planter, and possesses besides all t stability, certainty and security, the want of uch is the great drawback on the latter. An Eng-

is to allow L. 10 sterling per annum for every negro, young and old, employed in this line of cultivation.

English gentleman, when either extreme of dr
or wet weather injures the crop on his land
has no other concern in the calamity than suc
as the mere feelings of humanity may dictat
Nor is he under the disagreeable necessity in tim
of war, of paying large premiums for insurin
his estate from capture by a foreign enemy. Th
is another tax, which the unfortunate West In
dian, resident in Great Britain, must add to h
expences; or submit to the disagreable alterna
tive of passing many an uneasy day and sleepl
night, in dreadful anxiety for the fate of his pos
sessions, and the future subsistence of his fami
ly; — harassed, perhaps, at the same time, b
creditors whose importunity increases as their se
curity becomes endangered.

But there is a question, naturally arisin
from the premises, to which it is proper that
should, in this place, give an answer; and t
is this: Seeing that a capital is wanted whic
few men can command, and considering witha
that the returns are in general but small and
best uncertain, how has it happened that the s
gar islands have been so rapidly settled, and ma
a great estate purchased in the mother-countr
fr

m the profits that have accrued from their
tivation? It were to be wished that those who
ke such enquiries would enquire, on the other
id, how many unhappy persons have been
ally and irretrievably ruined, by adventuring
the cultivation of these islands, without pos-
sing any adequate means to support them in
h great undertakings? On the failure of some
these unfortunate men, vast estates have in-
d been raised by persons who have had money
command; men there are who, reflecting on
advantages to be derived from this circum-
nce, behold a sugar planter struggling in
tress, with the same emotions as are felt by
Cornish peasants in contemplating a shipwreck
the coast, and hasten with equal rapacious-
s to participate in the spoil. Like them too,
y sometimes hold out false lights to lead the
wary adventurer to destruction; more especially
he has any thing considerable of his own to
out with. Money is advanced, and encoura-
nent given, to a certain point; but a skilful
ctitioner well knows where to stop: he is
are what very large sums must be expended
the purchase of the freehold, and in the first
erations of clearing and planting the lands,

and erecting the buildings, before any return can be made. One third of the money thus expended, he has perhaps furnished; but the time soon arrives when a further advance is requisite to give life and activity to the system, by the addition of the negroes and the stock. Now then is the moment for oppression, aided by the letter of the law, and the process of office, to reap a golden harvest. If the property answers expectation, and the lands promise great returns, the sagacious creditor, instead of giving further aid, or leaving his too confident debtor to make the best of his way by his own exertions, pleads a sudden and unexpected emergency, and insists on immediate re-payment of the sum already lent. The law, on this occasion, is far from being chargeable with delay, and avarice is inexorable. A sale is hurried on, and no bidder appear but the creditor himself. Ready money is required in payment, and every one sees that a further sum will be wanting to make the estate productive. Few therefore have the means, who have even the wish, efficaciously to assist the devoted victim. Thus, the creditor gets the estate at his own price, commonly for his first advance, while the miserable debtor has reason to thank

his stars if, consoling himself with only
is of his own orginal capital, and his la-
or a series of years, he escapes a prison
e.

hat this is no creation of the fancy, nor
an exaggerated picture, the records of the
of law, in all or most of our islands (Ja-
especially) and the recollection of every
itant, furnish incontestable proof. At the
time it cannot justly be denied that there
creditors, especially among the British mer-
ts, of a very different character from those
have been described, who, having advanced
money to resident planters, not in the view
leriving undue advantages from their labours
necessities, but solely on the fair and honou-
e ground of reciprocal benefit, have been
pelled, much against their inclination, to be-
e planters themselves; being obliged to receive
profitable West Indian estates in payment, or
their money altogether. I have known plan-
ions transferred in this manner, which are a
then instead of a benefit to the holder; and
kept up solely in the hope that favourable
ops, and an advance in the prices of West

Indian produce, may, some time or other, invite purchasers. Thus oppression in one class of creditors, and gross injustice towards another, contribute equally to keep up cultivation in a country, where, if the risques and losses are great, the gains are sometimes commensurate; for sugar estates there are, undoubtedly, from which, instead of the returns that I have estimated as the average interest on the capital, double that profit has been obtained. It is indeed true that such instances are extremely rare; but perhaps to that very circumstance, which to a philosopher, speculating in his closet, would seem sufficient to deter a wise man from adventuring in this line of cultivation, it is chiefly owing that so much money has been expended in it. I mean the fluctuating nature of its returns. The quality of sugar varies occasionally to so great a degree as to create a difference in its marketable value of upwards of ten shillings sterling in the hundred weight, the whole of which is clear profit the duties and charges being precisely the same on Muscovado sugar, of whatever quality.

Thus fine sugar has been known to yield a clear profit to the planter of no less than L. 1,500

sterling on 200 hogsheads of the usual
tude, beyond what the same number, where
mmodity is inferior in quality, would have
ed at the same market. To aver that this
nce is imputable wholly to soil and seasons
e West Indies, or to the state of the Bri-
narket, is to contradict common observation
experience. Much, undoubtedly, depends
kill in the manufacture; and, the process
apparently simple, the beholder (from a
ensity natural to the busy and inquisitive
of mankind) feels an almost irresistible pro-
ity to engage in it. In this, therefore, as in
other enterprises, whose success depends in
degree on human sagacity and prudence,
ugh perhaps not more than one man in fifty
ies away fortunate, every sanguine adventu-
takes for granted that he shall be that one.
us his system of life becomes a course of expe-
ients, and, if ruin should be the consequence
his rashness, he imputes his misfortunes to
y cause, rather than to his own want of ca-
city or foresight.

That the reasons thus given, are the only
es that can be adduced in answer to the

question that has been stated, I presum
to affirm. Other causes, of more powerfu
cacy, may perhaps be assigned by men of
der views and better information. The
however which I have detailed, are too str
and notorious to be controverted or conceale

Having now, I believe, sufficiently tre
of the growth, cultivation, and manufacture
sugar, etc. and pointed out with a minute
(tedious perhaps but) suited, as I conceive,
the importance of the subject, the first c
and current contingencies attending the es
blishment and profitable maintenance of a sug
plantation, together with the risque and ga
eventually arising from this species of property
I shall proceed, in the following chapter, t
furnish my readers with such information as
have been able to collect concerning the mino
staples especially those important ones of cotton
indigo, coffee, cacao, pimento, and ginger
which, with sugar and rum, principally constitut
the bulky freight that gives employment to a
extent of shipping, nearly equal to the whol
commercial tonnage of England at the beginning
of the present century.

Of

Of the minor Staple Commodities, viz. Cotton, its growth and various species. — Mode of cultivation, and risques attending it. — Import of this article into Great Britain, and profits accruing from the manufactures produced by it. — Indigo, its cultivation and manufacture. — Opulence of the first Indigo planters in Jamaica, and reflections concerning the decline of this branch of cultivation in that island. — Coffee, whether that of the West Indies equal to the Mocha? — Situation and soil, Exorbitant duty to which it was subject in Great Britain. — Approved method of cultivating the plant and curing the berry. — Estimate of the annual expences and returns of a Coffee plantation. — Cacao, Ginger, Arnotto, Aloes, and Pimento; brief account of each.

Cotton.

That beautiful vegetable wool, or substance called cotton, is the spontaneous production of three parts of the earth. It is found growing naturally in all the tropical regions of Asia, Africa, and America; and may justly be comprehended among the most valuable gifts of a

bountiful Creator, superintending and providing for the necessities of man.

The cotton-wool, which is manufactured into cloth (for there is a species in the West Indies, called silk or wild cotton, unfit for the loom) consists of two distinct kinds, known to the planters by the names of Green-seed Cotton, and Shrub Cotton; and these again have subordinate marks of difference, with which the cultivator ought to be well acquainted if he means to apply his labours to the gratest advantage.

Green-seed cotton is of two species; of one of which the wool is so firmly attached to the seed, that no method has hitherto been found of separating them, except by the hand; an operation so tedious and troublesome, that the value of the commodity is not proportionate to the pains that are requisite in preparing it for market. This sort therefore is at present cultivated principally for supplying wick for the lamps that are used in sugar-boiling, and for domestick purposes; but the staple being exceedingly good, and its colour perfectly white, it would doubtless be

be a valuable acquisition to the muslin manufactory, could means be found of detaching it easily from the seed.

The other sort has larger seeds, of a duller green than the former, and the wool is not of equal fineness; though much finer than the cotton-wool in general cultivation; and it is easily separated from the seed by the common method, hereafter to be described. I have been told that this species of the green-seed cotton is not sufficiently known to the planters in general, (being usually confounded with the former) or that probably it would be in high estimation.

Both the species above-mentioned, though they produce pods at an early stage, when they are mere shrubs, will, if suffered to spread, grow into trees of considerable magnitude, and yield annual crops, according to the season, without any kind of cultivation. The blossoms put forth in succession from October to January, and the pods begin to open fit for gathering from February to June. I come now to the

Shrub

Shrub Cotton, properly so called. The shrub itself very nearly resembles an European Corinth bush, and may be subdivided into several varieties, all of which however very nearly resemble each other (*g*). These varieties (such of them at least as have come to my knowledge) are,

1st, The Common Jamaica, the seeds of which are oblong, perfectly smooth, and have no beard at the smaller end. The staple is coarse, but strong. Its greatest defect is, that the

(*g*) The flowers are composed of five large yellow leaves, each stained at the bottom with a purple spot. They are beautiful, but devoid of fragrance. The pistil is strong and large, surrounded at and near the top with a yellow farinaceous dust, which, when ripe, falls into the matrix of the pistil. This is likewise surrounded, when the petals of the flowers drop, with a capsular pod, supported by three triangular green leaves deeply jugged at their ends. The inclosed pod opens, when ripe, into three or four partitions, discovering the cotton in as many white locks as there are partitions in the pod. In these locks are interspersed the seeds, which are commonly small and black.

he seeds are so brittle it is scarce possible to ender it perfectly clean; on which account it is he lowest-priced cotton at the British market. Such however is the obstinacy of habit, that few of the British cotton planters give themselves he trouble to select a better sort, or seem indeed to wish for it.

2d, Brown Bearded. — This is generally cultivated with the species last-mentioned, but the staple is somewhat finer, and the pods, though fewer in number, produce a greater quantity of wool. The shrub gives likewise a better ratoon. It is therefore the interest of the cotton planter to cultivate it separately. The only disadvantage attending it is, that it is not so easily detached from the seed as the other, and therefore a negro will clear a few pounds less in his day's work.

3d, Nankeen. — This differs but little in the seeds or otherwise from the species last-mentioned, except in the colour of the wool, which is that of the cloth called Nankeen. It is not so much in demand as the white.

4th,

4th, French or Small-seed, with a whitish beard. This is the cotton in general cultivation in Hispaniola. Its staple is finer, and its produce equal to either of the three species last-mentioned, as the shrub is supposed to bear a greater number of pods than the Jamaica, or the Brown Bearded, but is less hardy than either.

5th, Kidney Cotton, so called from the seeds being conglomerated or adhering firmly to each other in the pod. In all the other sorts they are separated. It is likewise called, Chain Cotton, and, I believe, is the true Cotton of Brasil. — The staple is good, the pod large, and the produce considerable. A single negro may clear with ease sixty-five pounds in a day, besides which, it leaves the seeds behind unbroken, and comes perfectly clean from the rollers. It is therefore improvident, in the highest degree, to mix this species with any other.

On the whole, the most profitable sorts for general cultivation seem to be, the second of the Green-seed, the French or Small-seed, and

nd the Brasilian. The mode of culture is the ame with all the different species, and there is his advantage attending them all, that they will lourish in the driest and most rocky soils, pro- rited such lands have not been exhausted by for- ner cultivation. Dryness, both in respect of the oil and atmosphere, is indeed essentially neces- sary in all its stages; for if the land is moist, he plant expends itself in branches and leaves, nd if the rains are heavy, either when the plant is in blossom, or when the pods are beginning to unfold, the crop is lost. Perhaps, however, these observations apply more immediately to the French cotton than to any other.

The plant is raised from the seed, the land requiring no other preparation than to be cleared of its native incumbrances; and the season for putting the seed into the ground is from May to September, both months inclusive. This is usually done in ranks or rows, leaving a space between each, of six or eight feet, the holes in each row being commonly four feet apart. — It is the practice to put eight or ten of the seeds into each hole, because some of them are com- monly devoured by a grub or worm, and others

rot

rot in the ground. The young sprouts make their appearance in about a fortnight, but they are of slow growth for the first six weeks, at which period it is necessary to clean the ground and draw the supernumerary plants, leaving two or three only of the strongest in each hole. One plant alone would be sufficient to leave, if there was any certainty of its coming to maturity; but many of the tender sprouts are devoured by the grub. At the age of three or four months, the plants are cleaned a second time; and both the stem and branches pruned, or, as it is called, topp'd; an inch (or more if the plants are luxuriant) being broke off from the end of each shoot; which is done in order to make the stems throw out a greater number of lateral branches. This operation, if the growth be over luxuriant, is sometimes performed a second, and even a third time. At the end of five months, the plant begins to blossom and put forth its beautiful yellow flowers, and in two months more, the pod is formed. From the seventh to the tenth month the pods ripen in succession; when they burst open in three partitions, displaying their white and glossy down to the sight. The wool is now gathered, the seeds being enveloped in it; from which

a it is afterwards extricated by a machine
bling a turner's lathe. It is called a gin,
s composed of two small rollers placed close
parallel to each other in a frame, and tur-
in opposite directions by different wheels,
a are moved by the foot (*h*). The cotton
put by the hand to these rollers as they
round, readily passes between them, lea-
the seeds, which are too large for the in-
ace behind. The wool is afterwards hand-
d, that it may be properly cleared of de-
l leaves, broken seeds, and wool which has
stained and damaged in the pod (*i*). It is
packed into bags of about two hundred
ds weight, and sent to market.

The

It is a very slight and simple instrument, and costs only from two to three guineas.

The cotton manufactory of England, since the year 1786, hath made a rapid improvement, owing to the large spinning machines which are worked by water. These require the cleanest cotton, as the smallest particle of a broken seed breaks the thread in this mode of spinning.

The finest grained and most perfectly clean cotton, which is brought to the English market is, I believe, that of the Dutch plantations of Berbice, Demarara, and Surinam, and of the island of Cayenne; but before the year 17 England had no fine manufactories. In the last end of that year, however, cotton wool of all kinds found a ready sale at the following prices

	s. d.
Berbice	2 1 per lb.
Demarara	1 11 to 25. 1 d.
Surinam	2 —
Cayenne	2 —
St. Domingo	1 10
Tobago	1 9
Jamaica	1 7

Since that time the prices have indeed varied but the relative value has continued nearly the same; that is, the difference of price between the cotton of Berbice and that of Jamaica has been from 25 to 30 per cent in favour of the former, a circumstance which alone should convince the most bigotted planter of the British West Indies that, if he wishes to turn his labours to

count, the choice of a better species of cotton, least of a sort more easily cleaned than that in neral cultivation, is indispensably requisite.

I shall now bring into one point of view, e several particulars attending the first cost d settlement of a plantation in this sort of sbandry, and the returns which may reasobly be expected from a small capital thus emyed. I fix on a small capital; because I conive that a cotton plantation may be established a more moderate fund than any other; and it for the interest of the community that men of all fortunes should be instructed how to employ eir time and labours to the best advantage; since is to such men chiefly that the West Indies e to look for safety in the hour of danger.

It is presumed that land proper for the owth of cotton, situated near the sea, may purchased, in many parts of the West Indies amaica especially), at L. 5 Jamaica currency r acre; and as it is prudent, in most cases, to lange the soil after the third crop, by replan-

ting fresh land (*k*), I will allot fifty acres for t
first purchase, in order that the planter m
have room for that purpose. Supposing therefo
that one half only is planted in cotton
the same time, the capital will be invested
follows.

Cost of fifty acres of land, at L. 5 L. s.
currency per acre 250 —

E

(*k*) If the land is extraordinary good, four and e
five annual crops are sometimes gathered from
same original plants; after which, instead of
planting, it is not uncommon to cut the co
bushes down to within three or four inches of
ground, and mould the stems in the May ra
and treat them afterwards in the same manner
plants. Some labour is undoubtedly saved by
practice; but, in nine cases out of ten, it will
found more profitable to resort to fresh land, e
third or fourth year. I consider, at the same ti
land to be fresh enough which has lain fallow,
been used in a different line of culture for three
four years together, the great intention of chan
the land being to get rid of that peculiar sor
grub or worm which preys on the cotton-plant.

Expence of cleaning, fencing and planting 25 acres, at L. 7 per acre	175 — —
Purchase of twelve negroes, at L. 70 each	840 — —
	1,265
One years interest, at 6 per cent	75 18 —
One years maintenance, cloathing, and medical care of the negroes	120 — —
Total expenditure in Jamaica currency (equal to L. 1,040 sterling)	1,460 18 —

The returns are now to be considered. — n Jamaica it is commonly reckoned that one acre f cotton will yield annually 150 pounds weight, nd in some years nearly twice as much, but I m afraid that, on an average of any considerable umber of successive crops, even the former is oo great an allowance. By accounts which I lave procured from the Bahama islands, it appears, that in 1785, 1786 and 1787 (all which years were considered as favourable), the produce

of the cotton-lands on an average, did not exceed one hundred and twelve pounds per acre, viz.

In 1785 — 2,476		2,480 Cwt.
1786 — 3,050	acres produced	3,000
1787 — 4,500		4,380 Cotton

The price in the Bahamas and Jamaica was the same, viz. 15 3 d. sterling per pound. Allowing therefore the average produce per acre to be one hundred weight, the returns are these; viz.

	Sterling
25, cwt. at 1 s 3 d. sterling per pound	L. 17
Deduct incidental expences, as materials for bagging, colonial taxes, etc. (l).	2
Remains in sterling money	15

Which

(l) The maintenance, etc. of the negroes, after the first year, is not charged, because it is conceived, that the land in cotton not being sufficient to find them in full employment, they raise corn and other articles on the remaining twenty-five acres, more than sufficient to pay for their clothing and support. It is usual even to raise corn, potatoes, etc. between the ranks of the cotton bushes.

Which gives an interest of upwards of four- n per cent on the capital; arising too from lowest-priced cotton. If the same calculation applied to cotton-wool, of two shillings per and value (the present price of the cotton- ool of St. Domingo) the profit on the capital is enty-four per cent.

From this display, the rapid progress which e Dutch and French planters have made in the ulture of this commodity, cannot be thought xtraordinary; but there remain some circum- tances, of a less favourable nature, to be taken nto the account. Of all the productions to which abour is applied, the cotton-plant is perhaps he most precarious. In its first stage, it is at- acked by the grub, it is devoured by caterpil- ars in the second; it is sometimes withered by he blast; and rains frequently destroy it both in he blossom and the pod. The Bahama islands fforded a melancholy instance of the uncertainty f this production in 1788; no less than 280 ons, on a moderate estimate, having been de- oured by the worm, between September and March, in that year. After this the reader vill hardly subject me of having rated the

average produce of this plant, for a series years, too low (*m*).

With every disadvantage, however, the d mand for cotton-wool, for the British manu tories, encreases with such rapidity, that it c not be doubted the cultivation of it, with t cautions recommended, will be found highly p fitable; the British dominions not supplying present, much more than one-fourth part of t home demand. If, after a careful selection a trials of the different species of the seeds alrea in our possession, the cotton-wool of the Briti West Indies shall still be found inferior to th of the Dutch, no difficulty can occur in obtai ning from them a better sort. It is evident tha the French cotton loses its superiority in our is lands, by being sown promiscuously with an infe rior species,

I shall conclude the subject, with presenting to my readers the following tables drawn from au thentick sources; which cannot fail to furnish abundant encouragement for speculation and ad venture.

A

(*m*) It has suggested, that the ravages of the worm or grub might be prevented by raising the plant from slips or layers.

An Account of foreign Cotton-wool impor- into the British West Indies, in British s.

Years.	lbs.
1784	1,135,750
1785	1,398,500
1786	1,346,386
1787	1,158,000

An Account of Foreign Cotton-wool impor- into the British West Indies, under the eeport Act.

Years.	lbs.
1784	2,169,000
1785	1,575,280
1786	2,962,500
1787	1,943,000

An Account of Cotton-wool, British and oreign, imported from the British West Indies to Great Britain.

Years.	lbs.
1784	6,893,959
1785	8,204,611

1786	7,830,734
1787	9,396,921.

An Account of Cotton-wool imported Great Britain, from all Parts.

Years.	lbs.	Supposed Value in Manufact
1784	11,280,338	L. 3,950,000 sterling
1785	17,992,888	6,000,000
1786	19,151,867	6,500,000
1787	22,600,000 (n)	7,500,000.

Machinery established in Great Britain (17 for the Cotton Manufactory.

143 Water mills, which cost L. 715,0

20,500 Hand-Mills, or jennies, for

apin

(n) Of the following growths; viz.

British sugar islands	6,600,000
French and Spaniah settlements	6,000,000
Dutch settlements	1,700,000
Portuguese settlements	2,500,000
East Indies	100,000
Smyrna or Turkey	5,700,000
	22,600,000

spinning the shute, for the twisted yarn spun by the water-mills, (including buildings and auxiliary machinery	285,000
Total	L. 1,000,000

The water-mills work 286,000 spindles, and jennies 1,665,100. — Total of spindles 51,100. — And it has been asserted, that a and of raw cotton-wool from Demarara, has en spun into 356 hanks, each hank being 840 rds; so that the thread would have extended 9 miles.

On the whole, it is computed that not less an three hundred and fifty thousand people in reat Britain find full employment in the cot-on manufactory. In point of importance, therefore, even the produce and manufacture of the reat staple commodity of this kingdom, wool, loes not exceed it in a two-fold proportion. According to the information of a very able and diligent inquirer, there are from ten to twelve millions of sheep in England. The value of their wool may, one year with another, amount to L. 3,000,000, the expence of manufacturing this

this is probably L. 9,000,000, and the total v
L. 12,000,000.

Indigo.

The Plant which yields the valuable comm
dity called Indigo (probably so named from In
where it was first known to be manufactured
grows spontaneously in all the West Indies.
the British Sugar Islands, they reckon three d
stinct species: the Wild, Guatimala, and Frenc
The first is said to be the hardist, and the d
extracted from it is supposed to be of the be
quality, both in colour and closeness of grain
but one of the other two species is commonl
pre

(*) L'Abbé Raynal by a gross mistake asserts that the plant itself was originally carried to the West Indies from the East. It was found growing spontaneously in all parts of St. Domingo, by Columbus himself, on the first discovery of the West Indies; and was indigeneous also in Mexico, and other parts of the continent, as appears from the testimony of Pet. Martyr and all the early Spanish writers, not one of whom does it seem that L'Abbé Raynal ever read.

erred by the planter, as yielding a greater rn; and of those, the French surpasses the timala in quantity; but yields to it in fineness grain, and beauty of colour (p).

That the richest soil produces the most luxu- it plant, and that good seasons accelerate its wth, cannot, I think, be doubted; but, ob- ving its long tap-root, and spontaneous wth, in almost every dry and barren savan- h, I am convinced it will thrive on soils that e fit for nothing else: The longest dry weather ill not totally kill it, though much water will ve that effect, if suffered to remain long on ie plant.

The cultivation and manufacture are conduc- ed in the following manner:

The

(p) The wild indigo (indigofera argentea) has short crooked pods and black seeds the Guatimala is distinguished by the redness of the stalk, and the colour of the seeds, which is green. This is the indigofera disperma of Linnaeus. The French is a short bushy plant, with roundish leaves. It has long crooked pods, and its seeds are yellow. The French call it Indigo franc. It is the indigofera tinctoria of Linnaeus.

average produce of this plant, for a series of years, too low (*m*).

With every disadvantage, however, the demand for cotton-wool, for the British manufactories, encreases with such rapidity, that it cannot be doubted the cultivation of it, with the cautions recommended, will be found highly profitable; the British dominions not supplying, at present, much more than one-fourth part of the home demand. If, after a careful selection and trials of the different species of the seeds already in our possession, the cotton-wool of the British West Indies shall still be found inferior to that of the Dutch, no difficulty can occur in obtaining from them a better sort. It is evident that the French cotton loses its superiority in our islands, by being sown promiscuously with an inferior species.

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persons have failed of late years in their attempts to revive the culture of this valuable commodity.

If this destructive pest be happily prevented or greatly mitigated, the produce per acre of the first cutting, will be about eighty pounds weight of what the French call pigeon's-neck, or about sixty pounds of a quality equal to the Guatimala. The produce in North America is sometimes nearly as much; but when Fahrenheit's thermometer falls to 60, the returns there are very uncertain, both in quality and quantity; a greater heat being absolutely necessary both for vegetation and maceration. The yielding for the subsequent cuttings somewhat diminishes, but in Jamaica and St. Domingo, if the land is new, about 300 lbs. per acre of the second quality, may be expected annually, from all the cuttings together, and four negroes sufficient to carry on the cultivation of five acres, besides doing other occasional work, sufficient to reimburse the expences of their maintenance and clothing.

The process for obtaining the dye is generally conducted in two cisterns; which are placed like two steps; the one ascending to the other. The big-

hest (which is also the longest) is called the per; and its dimensions are about sixteen square, and two feet and a half in depth. ere is an aperture near the bottom for dis- ging the fluid into the second, which is ed the battery, and is commonly about twel- feet square, and four and a half in depth. terns of these dimensions, are proper for ut seven acres of the plant: but its stone rk cannot easily be erected for want of mate- s, vats of strong timber, well secured from tage, will answer as well (r).

The plants are cut with reap-hooks or sick- , a few inches above the root (s), and placed by

r) There is also required a lime-vat, six by eight feet square, and four feet deep; and it may be proper to observe, that the tap or plug hole ought to be placed at least eight inches from the bottom, to leave sufficient room for the lime to subside, before the lime-water is drawn off into the battery.

s) Some persons are of opinion that the plants should not be cut nearer the ground than six inches, and that

by strata in the steeper, until it is about three parts full. They are then strongly pressed down by boards or planks, which are wedged or loaded, to prevent the plants from buoying up; and as much water is admitted as the weed will imbibe, until it is covered four or five inches deep, and in this state it is left to ferment, until the pulp is extracted but the utmost attention and nice management are now required; for, if the fluid is drawn off too soon, much of the pulp is left behind; and if the fermentation is too long continued, the tender tops of the weed occasion putrefaction, by which all the dye is destroyed.

T

that a few branches should be left on the stem. This practice, they say, will draw up the sap better, and produce a more luxuriant ratoon than when a naked stalk only is left. During the first cutting it is usual to leave some of the most flourishing stalks for seed, which ought not to be gathered until it is well hardened in the pod. — It generally requires ten bushels of the pod to produce a single bushel of clean dry seed fit for sowing. It may also be observed, that many indigo planters have a notion that the plant yields the greatest quantity of the dye, when cut at the full of the moon. — Of this fact I can assert nothing of my own knowledge.

To obtain a certain knowledge therefore of e proper degree of fermentation, has hitherto en the grand desideratum of the cultivator. peated experiments for this purpose, were ade some years ago in the island of Hispaniola, der the sanction and encouragement of the amber of Agriculture, and instructions (which ere said to be practised with great success by essrs. Dangdale and Mongon, indigo planters that island) were published by authority, to is effect:

„After the indigo has been steeped in the stern eight or nine hours, draw off a little of ie water, and with a pen dipped into it, make few strokes upon white paper. The first will robably be high coloured, in which case the ndigo is not sufficiently fermented; this operation to be repeated every quarter of an hour, until it loses its colour; when it is arrived at the rue point of fermentation."

It is astonishing that an experiment so simple n itself, if it answers, should have been for so nany years unknown to the indigo planters in eneral; and I confess, that, although I have

had no opportunity of giving it a trial, I am myself somewhat doubtful of its efficacy. The following method, which I give on the authority of Mr. Lediard, is, I conceive, attended with much greater certainty.

„Let a small hole be made in the stepper, six or eight inches from the bottom, exclusive of the opening or aperture for drawing off the impregnated water, let this hole likewise be stopped with a plug, yet not so firmly but that a small stream may be permitted to ooze through it. After the plants have been steeped some hours, the fluid oozing out will appear beautifully green, and at the lower edge of the cistern, from whence it drops into the battery, it will turn of a copperish colour. This copperish hue, as the fermentation continues, will gradually ascend upwards to the plug, and when that circumstance is perceived, it is proper to stop the fermentation."

„During the progress of this part of the business, particular attention should be paid to the smell of the liquor which weeps from the aperture; for should it discover any sourness, it will

be

necessary to let the fermented liquor run immediately into the battery, and lime water of ficient strength must be added to it, until it lost its sourness. As it is running off, it will ear green, mixed with a bright yellow, or w colour, but in the battery it will be of a st beautiful green."

The tincture being thus discharged into the tery, it is there churned or agitated, until dye begins to granulate, or float in little es on the water. This was formerly done in aica with manual labour, by means of padd , and, in the French islands, by buckets or inders fixed to long poles; — but far more venient machines are now constructed, in ich the levers are worked by a cog-wheel, l kept in motion by a horse or a mule. When fluid has, by such means, been well chur- l for the space of fifteen or twenty minutes, l, being tried in a cup or plate, appears dled or coagulated, a strong impregnation of e-water is gradually added, not only to pro- te a separation, but likewise to fix the colour l preserve it from putrefaction. But the plan- (as Brown observes) „must carefully distin-

guish the different stages of this part of the ope ration also, and attentively examine the appea rance and colour as the work advances, for th grain passes gradually from a greenish to a fi purple, which is the proper colour when the l quor is sufficiently worked; too small a degr of agitation leaving the indigo green and coarse while too vigorous an action brings it to be a most black."

"The liquor being properly and sufficient worked, and the pulp granulated, it is left und sturbed until the flakes or floculae settle at th bottom, when the incumbent water is drawn of and the indigo distributed into small linen ba to drain, after which it is carefully put int little square boxes or moulds, and suffered to dr gradually in the shade; and this finishes the ma nufacture (t).

(t) The following observations of Dr. Roxburgh Bengal, concerning the first process, seem to hav been made with great accuracy. "When the indig plant is committed to cold water in the steeping v the following appearances take place: in a few hou

To what has been said above of the nature the plant, suiting itself to every soil, and oducing four cuttings in the year, if we add e cheapness of the buildings, apparatus and la-ur, and the great value of the commodity, the-

a slight motion begins to shew itself through-out the body of liquor — the bulk encreases considerably, with some additional heat; air bubbles are generated, some of which remain on the surface, and gradually collect into patches of froth — a thin violet or copper coloured pellicle or cream makes its appearance between the patches of froth, and soon after, the thin film which forms the covering of the bubbles composing the froth begins to be deeply tinged with a fine blue; the liquor from the beginning will have been acquiring a green colour, and now it will appear, when viewed falling from one vessel to another, of a bright yellowish green, and will readily pass the closest filter until the action of the air makes is turbid, a proof that the base of the colour is now perfectly dissolved in the watery menstruum. This is the time for letting off the vat — the fermentation however continues, and large quantities of froth are formed. The smell now becomes very offensive etc. etc.

Bancroft on Permanent Colours, Appendix 432.

there will seem but little cause for wonder at the splendid accounts which are transmitted down to us concerning the great opulence of the first Indigo planters. Allowing the produce of an acre to be 300 lbs. and the produce no more than 5 sterling per pound, the gross profits of twenty acres will be L. 1,200, produced by the labour of only sixteen negroes, and on a capital in land and buildings, scarce deserving consideration.

Such, without doubt, will be the readers first reflections. Unhappily, however, the golden hopes which speculations like these have raised in the minds of thousands, have vanished on actual experiment, like the visions of the morning. I think I have myself, in the course of eighteen years residence in the West Indies, known at least twenty persons commence Indigo planters, not one of whom has left a trace by which I can now point out where his plantation was situated, except perhaps the remains of a ruined cistern covered by weeds, and defiled by reptiles.

Many of them too were men of knowledge, foresight, and property. That they failed is certain, but of the causes of their failure, I confess

Coffee.

So many treatises have been written on the history of coffee, its introduction into the West In-

indigo. This account however is chiefly interesting to the planters of the West Indies, as containing some experiments and opinions which lead to an improved method of extracting the common indigo by means of a boiling process; for it being found that the leaves of the nerium would not yield their colour except to boiling water, it was judged by analogy that the scalding process might be advantageously applied also to the common indigo plant, and the result has exceeded expectation: „by the scalding process (observes Dr. Roxburgh) I have always, on a small scale, made from the common indigo plant, better indigo than I could by fermentation, and in one fourth of the time; and what is also of great importance, without the smallest degree of the pernicious effluvia which attends the manufacture of indigo by fermentation; and moreover, the twigs and leaves themselves of the indigo plant burn fiercely, after having been well dried, and will carry on the operation without requiring any great addition of other fuel.“

In

Indies has been so fully traced by some writers and its properties so ably investigated by others (ab

In another place Dr. Roxburgh observes, „the the Hindoos throughout the northern provinces of circars make all their indigo by means of hot water, and precipitate with a cold infusion of the bark of the jambalong tree, yet, notwithstanding the inferiority of this bark as an astringent, when its effects are compared with those of lime-water, I have always found their indigo to be of a very excellent quality, and very light; a cubic inch weighing only about 110 grains, and being of a blue violed colour. The superior quality of this indigo must alone be imputed to the nature of the process by which the colour, or rather base of the colour, is extracted from the plant; for their apparatus is very inconvenient."

„Besides the superior quality of the indigo obtained by the scalding process, the quantity is generally increased by it, moreover the health of the labourer in this way is not endangered, as in the fermenting process, by constant and copious exhalations of putrid miasma: the heat employed expels most of the fixed air during the scalding, which renders a very small degree of agitation, and very little of the precipitant necessary. The operation can also

be

ɔove all, by my learned friend Dr. Benjamin ɔseley) as hardly to leave me the possibility of ering any thing new on those subjects. The v observations therefore which I shall present my readers concerning this berry, will relate incipally to its culture; and these being chiefly unded on actual experience, may perhaps afrd some useful information.

The admirers of coffee have long lamented e inferiority of the West Indian to that of ocha. That many of the complaints with which e publick are amused on this subject, arise om affectation, I have not a doubt. At the me time, it must be admitted that the charge is ɔt entirely without foundation, inasmuch as the Vest Indian coffee is frequently drank within welve months after it has been gathered from the

be performed two or three times a day upon a large scale; and lastly, the indigo itself dries quickly without acquiring any bad smell or putrid unwholesome tendency.

Surely these observations deserve the most serious attention of the planters in the British West-Indies.

of one shilling a pound from the excise duties, created an immediate and wonderful change, and while it promoted the interest of the planter, it even augmented the revenue of the state; more than double the quantity of coffee having been brought to entry in 1784 than was entered in the year proceding; increasing the sum total of the duties (though reduced two thirds) from L. 2,869. 10s. 10 1/2 d. to L. 7,200. 15s. 9 d.; an important proof, among others, how frequently heavy taxation defeats its own purpose!

As the British demand has thus increased, so, on the other hand, the American has declined, having, as I conceive, been transferred in a great measure to the foreign islands. It is now therefore become the interest of the planter to change his system, by suiting the nature of his commodity to the taste of his new customers.

This, it is true, is not within the power of every man, whose plantation is already settled, to accomplish; but assuredly it is a very important object to such persons as may have it in contemplation to adventure in this line of culti-

va-

tion (in a country, where every species of soil, l choice of situation, may be found) to know ore hand how to employ their money and la- ır to the greatest advantage.

Coffee indeed will thrive in every soil in West Indies; a cold stiff clay, and a shallow uld on a hot marle, excepted. In both which, leaves turn yellow, and the trees perish, or ıduce nothing; but the best and highest-fla- ıred fruit is unquestionably the growth of her a warm gravelly mould, a sandy loam, the dry red hills which are found in almost ry island of the West Indies, Jamaica espe- lly. Frequent showers of rain, however, are endly to its growth, but if water remains ıg about the roots, the tree will decay and rish.

If the land be fresh and naturally good, fee plants may be set out at all seasons of the ır, even in dry weather, and they will thrive any situation, provided it be screened from e north winds, which often destroy the blos- n; and sometimes, in the after part of the ar when those winds prevail most, entirely

strip the tree of both fruit and leaves, blasting in a moment all the hopes of the planter.

The usual mode of planting is, to line out the land into squares of eight feet; in other words, to sow the seeds, or set out the young plants, eight feet distant from each other on all sides, which gives six hundred and eighty trees to each acre; and, where young plants are easily procured they are preferred to berries. The plants which are intended to be set out are generally selected of about two feet in height. They are cut off ten inches above the surface of the ground, and care is taken to dig them up with the roots as entire as possible. The holes in which they are set, are made large enough to hold the lower part of the stem, and all the roots; and the upper fibres are buried about two inches under the surface. But, although eight feet be the usual distance of setting out the plants in all soils, it is frequently found, in rich lands, that the trees, as they grow to maturity, become, from their luxuriance, so closely intermingled together, as to impede the free passage of the air: In such cases it is thought adviseable to cut down every second row, within ten or twel-

elve inches of the ground, and by well moul-
ng the stumps, they will furnish a succession
healty young trees, while the rows which
e left will bear much better for the room which
given them. Old plantations (or walks as they
e called) cut down in this manner, not dug up
d replanted, will give a tolerable crop the se-
nd year; and the operation may be frequently
peated.

In the cultivation of a young walk, the ge-
ral and most approved system is to keep the
ees perfectly clear of suckers, and to rear one
em only from one root. If, therefore, a heal-
y shoot springs near the ground, all the origi-
l plant is cut off close above it, by which
eans, when the plant is moulded, the root be-
omes well covered. At the height of five or six
et, which the plants generally attain the third
ear, the trees are topped. At this height, a
ingle stem gives from thirty-six to forty-two
earing branches, and the pruning required an-
ually, is to leave nothing but those branches.

From what has been said concerning the ef-
ect of a difference of seasons, it must be difficult

to fix on the average produce of a coffee plantation by the acre. In rich and sprungy soils a single tree has been known to yield from six to eight pounds of coffee; I mean when pulped and dried. In a different situation, a pound and a quarter from each tree, on an average, is great yielding; but then the coffee is infinitely better in point of flavour. The following is, I believe, on a medium, as accurate a calculation as the subject will admit. Coffee trees raised from old trees, in lands neither very poor nor very rich, bear the second year from the new growth 300 pounds weight per acre, 500 pounds the third year, and from 6 to 700 pounds the fourth. If the trees are raised from young plants, no produce is to be expected until the third year from the planting; when they will yield very little the fourth year, about 700 pounds. The average annual produce per acre after that period, if the walk is properly attended to, may be reckoned at 750 pounds; and one negro is well able to take proper care of an acre and a half.

We are now come to the most important business of the coffee planter, i. e. the gathering in his crop, and the mode of curing it for mar-

ket.

et. The practice in Arabia, according to Le oque, is as follows. — "When the planters rceive that the fruit is come to maturity, they read cloths under the trees, which they shake om time to time, and the ripe fruit drops off. he berries thus collected are afterwards spread on mats, and exposed to the sun with the lp on the berries, until they are perfectly dry, hich requires a considerable time; after which, e beans are extricated from its outward incumbance by the pressure of a large and heavy ne roller, when they are again dried in the n; for the planters consider, that, unless ffee be thoroughly dry, there is danger of its ating. It is then winnowed with a large fan, d packed for sale."

It cannot be denied that this simple method ust be infinitely superior to any other for preerving the genuine flavour of the berry; but it ay well be doubted whether the additional ice which the planter might obtain at the Brih market for coffee thus gathered and prepad, would be adequate to the value of the time d labour which so tedious a method would nessarily require. The usual practice in the Brih West Indies is as follows:

As soon as the berries acquire the colour of a black red on the trees, they are supposed to be sufficiently ripe for picking. The negroes employed in this business are provided each with a canvas bag, with a hoop in the mouth to keep it open. It is hung about the neck of the picker, who empties it occasionally into a basket, and if he be industrious, he may pick three bushels in the day. But it is not very provident to urge him on too fast, as probably a great deal of unripe fruit will in that case be mixed with the ripe. The usual practice is to pick the trees at three different stages of ripeness. One hundred bushels in the pulp, fresh from the tree, will give about one thousand pounds weight of merchantable coffee.

There are two methods in use of curing or drying the bean. The one is, to spread the fresh coffee in the sun, in layers about five inches deep, on a sloping terras, or platform of boards, with the pulp on the berry, which in a few days ferments and discharges itself in a strong acidulous moisture, and in this state the coffee is left, until it is perfectly dry, which if the weather is favourable, it will be in about three

hree weeks. The husks are afterwards separated rom the seeds by a grinding mill hereafter to be escribed, or frequently by pounding them with estles in troughs or large wooden mortars. Cof- ee thus cured, weighs four per cent heavier han if cured without the pulp.

The other mode is to remove the pulp immediately as it comes from the tree. This is done y means of a pulping mill, consisting of a horizontal fluted roller, about eighteen inches long, nd eight inches in diameter. This roller is arned by a cranck or handle, and acts against moveable breast-board, which being fitted lose to the grooves of the roller, prevents the erries from passing whole. The mill is fed by sloping trough, and the aperture of the trough, rom which the berries drop into the mill, is regulated by a vertical sliding board. By this imple machine a negro will pulp a bushel in a minute. The pulp, and the bean (in its parchment skin) fall promiscuously together. The whole s then washed in wire sieves, to separate the ulp from the seeds, and these are immediately pread open to the sun to dry.

There prevails great difference of opinion among the coffee planters on the subject of these two different methods of curing raw coffee. The latter is perhaps the most profitable, as being more expeditious; but I have no doubt that the former would give the best flavoured coffee, provided the fermentation, which always takes place when the raw fruit is placed in heaps on the platform, could be prevented, which might easily be done at the expence of a little more room. The blue dingy green, which to the American is the test of good coffee, is considered by the London dealer as a proof that it *has not* been sufficiently cured. From both methods, however, the coffee may prove very good with the powerful assistance of its great improver, age.

Hitherto, I have described the pulping mill only. There yet remains the operation of grinding off the parchment skin, or membrane which immediately envelopes the bean, and is left after the pulp is removed. It is done by a machine which will also separate, at the same time, the dried pulp (if the former mode of curing has been adopted) much more expeditiously than the pestle and mortar.

The

The grinding mill consists of a perpendicular xis, surrounded at some distance by a circular ough, into which the coffee is thrown, and out a foot above the level of the surface of ie trough, there are commonly four horizondal rms or sweeps, tenanted into the axis, and tretching some feet beyond the trough, and on hem are four rollers, fitted to run in the trough n the arms being turned round with the axis, which s done by mules yoked to the extremity. The ollers, which are generally of considerable weight, noving round in the trough, bruise the skins of the coffee, so as to render them separable by the fan, though there is always a proportion left untouched. When it appears sufficiently bruised, it is taken out of the trough and put to the fan, which clears the coffee from the chaff, and the seeds remaining unground are separated by sieves and returned to the mill; which will clear 1,500 pounds of coffee in a day.

There is still another mode of curing coffee, both with and without the pulp, and that is by means of stores. But it is practised by very few planters; it is requiring an expensive apparatus in the first place, and in the second, it is said

that the smoke of the fire gives a disagreeable smell and taste to the berry. I know not if this assertion be true, it is certain, however, that nothing imbibes the smell or taste of any thing near it, sooner than coffee.

For the same reason it is a matter of great consequence that proper care should be taken, in shipping it for Europe, that it be not put into parts of the ship where it may receive the effluvia of other freight. „Coffee berries (says Dr. Mosely) are remarkably disposed to imbibe exhalations from other bodies, and thereby acquire an adventitious and disagreeable flavour. Rum, placed near to coffee, will in a short time so impregnate the berries, as to injure the taste in a high degree, and it is related by Mr. Miller, that a few bags of pepper on board a ship from India, some years since, spoiled a whole cargo of coffee.“

The few preceding observations are all that occur to me concerning the mode of cultivating, and preparing for market, this far-famed berry. I shall conclude the subject by offering a short estimate of the expences and returns attending its cul-

lture, which I conceive tends more to the en-
uragement of industry, and of course to the in-
ease of white population in the West Indian is-
nds, than that of any other of their staple com-
odities, its produce being more equal and cer-
in than that of any plant in cultivation, and
s average profits more considerable in proportion
) the capital employed.

It will be urged, perhaps, that if such were the
act, its culture would have been more general in
he British West Indies. This objection has been
nticipated and and answered by what has been
elated of the heavy excise duties on this com-
nodity in Great Britain previous to 1783. To
say (as is commonly said in the case of all du-
ties on goods imported) that they fall on the con-
sumer, and not on the planter, proves nothing;
for if the price, in consequence of the duties,
becomes so high as that the consumer ceases to
purchase, the effect is equally ruinous to the cul-
tivator, as if they fell immediately on himself.
Nothing more clearly demonstrates that the culti-
vation of this article was greatly affected by the
British duties, than the comparative quantities
imported into France and England; the whole

an-

annual import into Great Britain, on an average of five years (1783 to 1787), not exceeding five million six hundred thousand pounds weight; whereas the island of Hispaniola alone has produced an annual supply of seventy million of pounds and upwards.

It is likewise apparent, that since the reduction of the duties in 1783, the cultivation of coffee in the British West Indies, in Jamaica especially, has made a more rapid progress than in thirty years preceding. Yet, (as Dr. Mosely has observed) even the present duty of six pence per pound is too high to admit the general use of this fragrant beverage among all classes of people. What then must be thought of the former exaction of three times that duty, which continued for fifty-one years? So little has the science of colonial commerce been understood or adverted to!

Estimate of the Expence and Return of a Coffee Plantation in the mountains of Jamaica, fourten miles from the sea, calculated in the currency of that island, being forty per cent worse than sterling; viz.

First

First Cost of 300 acres of mountain land, of which one-half is reserved for provisions and pasturage, at L. 3. per acre		L. 900
Ditto, of 100 negroes, at L. 70 per head		7,000
Ditto, of 20 mules, at L. 28		560
Buildings and utensils, mills, and negro tools		2,000
Expence of maintaining the negroes the first year, before provisions can be raised (exclusive of other annual expences charged below) L. 5 each		500
		10,960
Compound interest for three years, before any return can be expected, at 6 per cent		2,093
Carried over.	L.	13,053

Brought over	L.	13,053
Annual Expence; viz.		
White overseer and maintenance	L.	200
One other white servant		70
Medical attendance on the negroes		25
Negro-supplies, viz. clothing, tools, salted fish, and other provisions,		

ex-

exclusive of the produce of their own grounds		200
Colonial taxes		100
		595
		3
Total for three years, before any return can be expected		1,785
Compound interest, as it arises in the several years		221
		2,006
Total Expence	L.	15.059

Returns the fourth year, at L. 4 per cwt. being the average price of Coffee for five years previous to 1792; viz.

From 150 acres of young coffee may be expected the fourth year 45,000 lbs.	L.	1,800
Deduct annual charges for the fourth year	L.	595
Sacks and saddles		40
Clear profit (being equal to L. 7. 14s per cent on the capital)	L.	635 1,165

Returns the fifth and subsequent years; viz.

150

150 acres, yielding 750 lbs. per acre 112,500 lbs. at L. 4		4,500
Deduct annual charges, as before	L. 595	
Sacks and saddles	80	
Repairs of mills, etc.	100	
Clear profit (being equal to 24 2/5 per cent on the capital)		775
		L. 3,725

It ought to have been observed in the first ition of this work, that I am indebted for the timates in this and the two preceding pages, my worthy friend, Samuel Vaughan, Esq. St. James's parish Jamaica, Member of the Asnbly of that island, who has directed his atition to the cultivation of Coffee with great asuity and success. He has since favoured me th the following interesting observations, which ave great pleasure in laying before the publick.

Observations concerning the cultivation of fe in St. Domingo, and its probable increase Jamaica, if the Slave Trade shall not be abo-ied by Act of Parliament.

The French part of St. Domingo, in 1770, orted only five millions of pounds of coffee, but

but in 1784, a bounty of 40 livres per ton having been allowed to slave vessels arriving from Africa, and in 1786, a further bounty of 20 livres per head on slaves imported, the import of negroes increased annually from 12 and 15,000 to 25 and 30,000; and the effect in that colony of this augmentation of African labourers was a very rapid in every species of cultivation; but that of coffee almost exceeds belief; for the export of this article in 1789 had increased to above 76 millions of pounds, which, valued at the present price (90 shillings per cwt.), is equal to L. 3,420,000 sterling! Of this enlarged export, no less than 25 millions of pounds (worth L. 1,250,000 sterling) were produced between the years 1786 and 1789; and it was supposed that the crop of 1792 (if the troubles had not intervened) would have been 80 millions, so little had the depreciation at market, from the additional quantity brought to sale, affected the cultivation. It seems probable, that the excessive price of the Mocha and Eastern coffee had formerly the effect of a prohibition of the use of this beverage among the middling and lower classes of people in Europe, for the quantity raised in this single island of St. Domingo was so great, the increase of its cultivation so

re-

pid, and the price of West Indian coffee,
ough 2 s. 5 d. per lb. less than that of Mocha,
ll continuing at the time of the greatest ex-
rt, at a profitable height for the cultivator;
at it is difficult to account for these facts, but
supposing the consumers to be augmented
new and numerous people. On this supposi-
n, it is impossible to foresee the extent to
nich the cultivation of this article in the West
dies may be carried. It is not enough to say,
will equal that of sugar, nor is it likely, as
the case of sugar, to be checked by importa-
n from the East, inasmuch as it has risen to
present wonderful importance in the West
dies, notwithstanding the rivalry of both the
st Indies and the Levant. — The diminution
the quantity of coffee produced in St. Domingo
pwards of one thousand coffee plantations ha-
ng been destroyed) will most certainly be felt
a remarkable manner for some years to come:
y persons from thence are of opinion, that the
portation will be reduced at least one half
at is, forty millions of pounds) supposing even
t the present rebellion was to terminate without
rther devastation. The export from the whole
itish Colonies in 1787 did not amount to four

lions of pounds, and therefore, excepting by new cultivation, they cannot supply the deficiency occasioned by the troubles in St. Domingo, nor is the rest of the West Indies able to make it up; for since these troubles, the price has augmented near one fourth, viz. from 70 s. to 90 s. This advance of price will, if not (as in former times) checked by additional duties, be a premium to all West India Islands where there are mountains; and, as cultivation cannot be carried on in St. Domingo, for some time, to its former extent, for various reasons, it is likely to be a premium of some degree of permanency. Let us now turn to Jamaica: the export of coffee from thence, before 1783, never exceeded 850,000 pounds, notwithstanding the several measures that were taken by the Assembly to encourage its cultivation. The reduction took place in 1783 of the excise, to 6 1/2 d. per pound, and this seems to have had an immediate influence; for in the fourth year from this event, when we should naturally expect the first appearance of an effect there was a considerable increase of export; and in three years more, the produce was nearly trebled, it exceeding 2 1/4 millions. In this situation we stood when the disturbances took pla

place at St. Domingo: it is now sixteen months since the commencement of that rebellion, and by the returns just made from the several parishes, it appears, that 21011 negroes are employed in the cultivation of coffee in Jamaica. I will suppose, however, that onefourth of these may be engaged in other objects connected with coffee, still there will remain 15,759 negroes employed solely in raising of this article: who, according to common calculation, when the plants are all at full growth (viz. in 1797) should make a return of about sixteen millions of pounds, that is above eighteen times as much as was produced before 1783, and seven times as much as was produced last year. It may be added, that the lowlands of Jamaica are already settled, the highlands, generally speaking, are improper for sugar, but proper for coffee; they are new, they are equal to near two thirds of Jamaica: the island is now well intersected with roads, etc. etc. In short; the country is prepared, and the time is proper for it.

From all these circumstances, taken together, it is reasonable to conclude, that if labourers shall continue to be procured from Africa at moderate prices, and every advantage be made of

the present moment, we shall establish in Jamaica a most extensive cultivation of coffee, which, as an export staple, will be of the utmost consequence to Great Britain, perhaps, exceeding in value the staple of sugar. But this new and important commerce is entirely dependent on a continued importation of labourers. The increase of the cultivation of coffee to the extent here suggested is, in the present times, of peculiar consequence in two other points of view: First, it will augment the numer of that middle class of Whites, who, though not rich enough to live in a distant country, are sufficiently opulent and independent to support their families in comfort and competence in a residence on their own estates; secondly, mountain settlements in general increase in Negro population, being more healthy than the lowlands. The first circumstance will add to our security, so necessary at present, and which, at all periods, we have in vain attempted, by other means, to effect. The second opens a prospect of an abolition of the Slave Trade, and that at no distant period of time, by natural causes, which will gradually take place without giving reason for complaint to any body of men. Jamaica, 1793.

Ha-

Having thus copiously treated of the cultiva-
of those products which chiefly give value
importance to the British colonies in the
Indies, and contribute, in a very eminent
, to the wealth, commerce, and naviga-
the parent state, it is the less necessary
o dwell at great length on minor staples,
cannot be wholly overlooked in a com-
survey of the tropical kingdom; nei-
d are they to be considered as unimpor-
pt by comparison with those rich and
commodities of which so much has
in this and the preceding chapters.
ng classes, of which I shall briefly
acao, ginger, arnotto, aloes, and
my observations will be few, they
practical and commercial; and sy-
ription of each being to be found
wn, Hughes, and other writers.

Cacao.

chocolate nut, a production
wholesome and nutritive, is a
nerica, and is said to have been
to Hispaniola from some of
ew Spain; where, besides af-

fording to the natives an article of nourishment, it served the purpose of money; and was used by them as a medium in barter; one hundred and fifty of the nuts being considered of much the same value as a royal by the Spaniards. From this circumstance it seems probable, that if the ancient inhabitants of South America were emigrants from Europe or Asia, they must have detached themselves at an early period, before metals were converted into coins, or from some society which had made but moderate advances in civilization.

Among the Spaniards, with whom the cacao still forms a considerable article of commerce, its cultivation is conducted in the following manner. Having chosen a spot of level land (a deep black mould is preferred) sheltered round with a thick wood, so as to be well screened from the wind, especially the north, and caused it to be cleared from all manner of stumps and weeds, the planter digs a number of holes at eighteen or twenty feet distance, each hole being about a foot in length and width, and six or eight inches deep. In the mean time, having selected the lar-

ges

t and fairest pods of the cacao when full ripe, takes out the grains and puts them into a ves- of water. Such of them as swim are rejected; others, being washed clean from the pulp and ned, are suffered to remain in the water till y begin to sprout, at which time they are fit planting. The owner then takes the banana, some other large leaves, and places one leaf hin the circumference of each hole, so as to it round; leaving however the sides of the some inches above the ground, after which rubs in the mould, very lightly, till the e is filled. He then selects three nuts for each e; and plants them triangularly, by making a ll opening for each with his finger, about inches deep, into which he puts the nuts, h that end downwards from which the sprout es, and having lightly covered them with ld, he folds over the leaf, and places a small e on the top to prevent its opening. In this ner he plants his whole walk, or orchard. the end of eight or ten days, the plants will erally be found to rise above the earth. The es are then opened, that their growth may be impeded; but, in order to shelter them m the sun, other leaves or branches are pla-

ced round the hole; for which purpose those of the palm kind are generally chosen (for having a strong stem, they are easily fixed in the earth) and they are changed as often as they decay, for the space of five or six months. It is also thought advisable to plant some other tree (the erythrina or bean tree is generally chosen for this purpose) to the south-west of the cacao plant, which may grow up with it, and serve it for shelter; for it must always be remenbered, that young cacao trees will flourish only in the shade.

If all the three nuts placed in each hole spring up, it is thought necessary, when the plants are eighteen or twenty inches high, to cut one of them down. The other two, if they spread different ways, are sometimes suffered to remain; but it seldom happens that all the nuts, or even more than one of them, will take root, which is the reason of planting three in a hole.

The fifth year the tree begins to bear, and the eigth attains its full perfection: it then produces in general two crops of fruit in the year, yielding at each, from ten to twenty pounds weight,

it, according to the soil and seasons; and it sometimes continue bearing for twenty years; he same delicacy of stamina which marks its cy, is visible in all the stages of its growth. obnoxious to blights, and shrinks from the appearance of drought. It has happened that greatest part of a whole plantation of cacao have perished in a single night, without visible cause. Circumstances of this nature, arly times, gave rise to many superstitious ns concerning this tree, and, among others, appearance of a comet was always considered tal to the cacao plantations.

In spite however of the influence of comets, notwithstanding the care and precaution that requisite in the first establishment of a cacao tation, it is certain that the cultivation of plant was both extensive and successful in British sugar islands, for many years after had become subject to the British govern-. Blome, who published a short account of ica in 1672, speaks of cacao as being at that one of the chief artioles of export: „there says he, in this island, at this time, it sixty cacao walks (plantations) and many more

now planting." At present I believe there is not a single cacao plantation from one end of Jamaica to the other. A few scattered trees, here and there, are all that remain of those flourishing and beautiful groves which were once the pride and boast of the country. They have withered with the indigo manufacture, under the heavy hand of ministerial exaction. The excise *on* cacao, when made into cakes, rose to no less than twelve pounds twelve shillings per cwt. exclusive of eleven shillings and eleven pence halfpenny, paid at the custom-house; amounting together to upwards of four hundred and eighty per cent on its marketable value!

It is to be hoped that the error of imposing such heavy impositions on our own colonial growths is at length become sufficiently manifest.

After all, there is reason to apprehend that our sugar islands can never again enter into competition with the Spanish Americans in the cultivation of the article of which I treat. At present the only cacao plantations of any account, in our colonies, are in Grenada and Dominica, and the quantity annually exported from both the-

islands cannot, I believe, be estimated, ı average at more than four thousand bags ıe hundred weight each, which may be ı, at the London market, between ten eleven thousand pounds sterling (x).

Gin-

The cacao tree, both in size and shape, somewhat esembles a young blackheart cherry. The flower is of a saffron colour, extremely beautiful, and the ods, which in a green state are much like a cucumber, proceed immediately from all parts of the body and larger branches. As they ripen, they change their colour, and turn to a fine bluish red, almost purple, with pink colored veins. This is the common sort; but there is a larger species, which produces pods of a delicate yellow or lemon colour. Each pod may contain from twenty to thirty nuts or kernels, not unlike almonds, which are again inclosed in a white pulply substance, soft and sweet, and immediately enveloped in a parchment shell. These nuts, being first simply dried in the sun, are packed for market, and require very little preparation, after removing the shell, to be made into good chocolate. The cakes which are generally used under this name in England, appear to me to be composed of not more than one half genuine cacao; the re-

all sides, richly clothed with leaves of a deep green, somewhat like those of the bay-tree: and these, in the months of July and August, are beautifully relieved by an exuberance of white flowers. It is remarkable, that the leaves are equally fragrant with the fruit, and I am told, yield in distillation a delicate odoriferous oil, which is very commonly used, in the medicinal dispensaries of Europe, for oil of cloves.

Soon after the trees are in blossom, the berries become fit for gathering, the fruit not being suffered to ripen on the tree, as the pulp in that state, being moist and glutinous, is difficult to cure, and, when dry, becomes black and tasteless. It is impossible however to prevent some of the ripe berries from mixing with the rest; but if the proportion of them be great, the price of the commodity is considerably injured.

It is gathered by the hand; — one labourer on the tree, employed in gathering the small branches, will give employment to three below (who are generally women and children) in picking the berries; and an industrious picker will fill a bag of 70 lbs. in the day. It is then spread

on

Ginger is distinguished into two sorts, the
k and the white; but the difference arises
olly from the mode of curing; the former
g rendered fit for preservation by means of
ling water, the latter by insolation; and, as
is found necessary to select the fairest and
adest roots for exposure to the sun, white
ger is commonly one-third dearer than black
the market.

In the cultivation of this root no greater
ll or care is required than in the propagation
potatoes in Great Britain, and it is planted
ch in the same manner; but is fit for digging
y once a year, unless for the purpose of pre-
ving it in syrup. In that case, it must be ta-
n up at the end of three or four months,
ile its fibres are tender, and full of sap. Gin-
r thus prepared makes an admirable sweetmeat;
t it is too well known to require description.

It seems to me that this commodity is grow-
g greatly out of use in Europe, and its culti-
tion in the West Indies decreases in conse-
ence. The average quantity exported annually
om the British islands may be stated at ten
thou-

informed that it is sometimes used by the Dutch farmers, to give a richness of colour to their butter, and very small quantities of it are said to be applied in the same manner in English dairies. On the whole, however, it is an object of no great commercial importance, and the demand for it is not sufficient to encourage much attention to its cultivation.

Aloes.

The most valuable species of aloes is that of the island of Socotora in the East Indies, the introduction of which in our West Indian colonies, has hitherto been unaccountably neglected. The species called the hepatick, is the only sort known to our planters, and even of this, the cultivation in the British dominions is, I believe at present, wholly confined to the island of Barbadoes, where it is said to have been originally introduced from Bermudas. It is propagated by suckers, and will thrive in soils the most dry and barren. The mode of extracting and preparing the juice is as follows:

The plant is pulled up by the roots, and carefully cleansed from the earth, or other impu-

ri-

bei dem Verleger dieses Buches ist ebenfalls erschienen:

leminius J. G. practische Comtoir-Uebungen, für Jünglinge, welche sich der Handlung widmen wollen; mit erklärenden Anmerkungen in franz. und englischer Sprache, 2ter Theil

oder

euer Hamburger practischer Handels-Correspondent für Jünglinge, welche die Geschäfte in Hamburg nach allen Theilen kennen lernen wollen. 8. Erlangen 1805. 1 fl 30 kr. 1 Rthlr.

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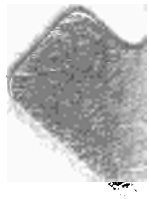
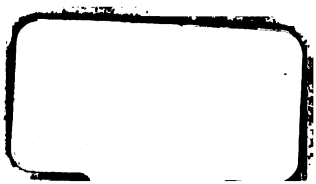
denotes) an admirable substitute, and succedaneum for them all.

„Sabean odours from the spicy shore
Of Araby the blest — —
Chear'd with the grateful smell, old ocean smiles.“

The piemento trees grow spontaneously, and in great abundance, in many parts of Jamaica, but more particularly on hilly situations near the sea, on the northern side of that island, where they form the most delicious groves that can possibly be imagined; filling the air with fragrance, and giving reality, though in a very distant part of the globe, to our great poet's description of those balmy gales which convey to the delighted voyager.

This tree is purely a child of nature, and seems to mock all the labours of man, in his endeavours to extend or improve its growth: not one attempt in fifty to propagate the young, or to raise them from the seeds, in parts of the country where it is not found growing spontaneously, having succeeded. The usual method of forming a new piemento plantation, (in Jamaica it is called a walk) is nothing more than

St. Petersburgischen Comtoiren vorkommende Rechnungen, wobey noch angehängt sind: Formular eines Russischen Zollbuches; Nachrichten, den Handel von St. Petersburg betreffend, mit spezieller Angabe der Beziehungsquellen der meisten Einfuhrartikel; Conti Finti von Petersburg vom Zollwesen in Petersburg; vom Justizwesen in merkantilischer Hinsicht; vom Handel in Petersburg im Jahr 1802.

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